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NOTE—Readers are reminded that the relative order of articles in the Journal, does not necessarily carry implications as to the comparative merits of contributions. The Journal is equally grateful to all its contributors, past, present, and potential, for their co-operation.

Our Pedagogical Dilemma and a Way Out

E. F. ENGEL

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(Author's Summary.—A review of the historical development of modern language teaching in this country with an analysis of the confusion in its aims and objectives. Explanation of a solution of the problem.)

IT MAY truly be said that no subject in the curricula of our schools has received more attention or been subject to greater changes in its pedagogical aspects than modern foreign languages. A review of the history of modern foreign language teaching and of the prolific literature on methods, aims and objectives in the teaching of these languages reveals striking evidence of the fertility of the soil from which an almost impenetrable growth of modern foreign language theories and experiments have sprung up. As one attempts to penetrate the denseness of this growth one is not surprised to find much dead wood and a tangle of underbrush and even noxious plants and one wonders why there are no tall and sturdy trees which have stood the test of time and tide and which symbolize strength and stability. The answer probably is that the elements and factors which enter into the making of such a tree have thus far been too sporadic and heterogeneous to be taken into one consummate linguistic creation. There surely has been no lack in the number and variety of saplings which have been propagated and proclaimed as potential giants which would overshadow and stunt all contenders in their domain. Such claims and predictions have been made for an indefinite number of methods whose names with their epitaphs would furnish rich material for a collector and commentator on curiosities.

Now such productivity in our field instead of being lamented or condoned should be taken as commendable evidence of the vitality and attractiveness of our cause. As the prism breaks up the sunlight into its chromatic elements so modern foreign languages through the pedagogical prism simply reveal their richness and beauty. If strifes, conflicts and antagonisms have attended the development of modern foreign languages they did not arise over their intrinsic values but over the theories and practices of promulgating them. It is quite natural and laudable that a teacher who has developed or discovered a new and original technique or procedure in the presentation of some phase of his subject matter should want to make it known to his fellow teachers, with the result that a published article or a new book is pressed upon our attention. Aside from the special feature or features claimed for each of these beginning books they differ from each other mainly in the size and content of their vocabularies, in the sequence and treatment of grammar topics, in the kind and amount of drill and translation exercises and in the selections of reading exercises. The general pattern is essentially the same and after one has examined a number of them one is left wondering how many if any of them lead to the desired goal.

The ineptness of modern foreign language teaching as charged by our critics is largely due to hereditary transmission which has persisted in spite of environment and crossbreeding. When modern foreign languages were first admitted as disciplines in academic curricula it was only natural and logical that the long established method and procedure in the teaching of the classical languages should be transferred to the teaching of the modern languages with grammar, syntax and translation drill the dominant factor. This lifeless teaching continued unchallenged until Professor Viëtor of Marburg University, Germany, in 1882, issued his polemic against it in his pamphlet entitled, Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren,-language instruction must turn about-in which he by forceful and convincing argument declared that the learning of a modern foreign language must be based upon the sounds and the spoken word of that language, and that formal grammar must be pushed into the background and be made a means to an end. This proclamation made a tremendous appeal to language teachers in Germany and gave rise to the so-called Reform movement in language instruction. The cardinal principles of this movement were first, the acquiring of a correct pronunciation of the foreign language through the application of phonetics and the use of phonetic symbols and second, the learning of a vocabulary without the intervention of the mother tongue.

In a modified form this method came to be used in this country and is generally spoken of as the Direct Method, so-called because the foreign language is taught without the mediation of the mother tongue. It lays less stress on the phonetic introduction and partakes somewhat of what used to be called the Natural Method which was based almost wholly on conversation. An undiluted Grammar Method and a strict Direct, or Natural Method would therefore represent two opposite extremes in the teaching of a foreign language and among the scores of beginning textbooks that have been published some may be found that are based on the one or the other but most of them occupy middle ground with special features which different authors have developed or devised. The attempt to combine on this middle ground the objectives of the Natural Method and the Grammar-Drill-Translation Method has led to confusion and uncertainty of results.

This vulnerable sector in our battle front arises from two factors. First of all from the ambitions of our profession and from the demands of our customers and patrons, that we achieve the same results as those achieved in the schools of Europe. And secondly from the handicaps and limitations that have been put upon modern language study in this country. As to the results achieved in the schools of Europe I shall adduce some data from an article by the writer published in the *Modern Language Journal* for February, 1938. In European countries the study of foreign languages is considered an essential and distinguishing constituent of secondary education, and the aim or objective in the study of modern foreign languages is the prac-

tical, speaking knowledge of the given language; in other words the mastery of an active vocabulary. The entire course of study and the method of teaching are planned and directed toward this end. As to the course of study the most noteworthy fact is the length of time devoted to the study of modern foreign languages. This factor varies somewhat with the type of school. The figures which I shall quote apply to German schools in 1936 before the nine year course was shortened to an eight year course, so that a revision downward will need to be made. But that does not affect the educational policy as to the importance attached to the study of modern foreign languages. In the Reform-Realgymnasium, one required modern language is taught six hours per week for three years, five hours for two years, and four hours for four years, making a total of 1408 class periods in nine years. A second required modern foreign language is taught five hours per week for two years, four hours for one year, and three hours for three years, or a total of 736 class periods in six years. For the Oberrealschule, the figures are 1280 class periods in nine years for the first modern foreign language and 704 in six years for the second; for the Realgymnasium, 864 class periods in seven years for the first modern language and 640 in six years for the second. When we contrast these requirements to the average of ten to fifteen hours of optional modern language study in our schools with 300 to 500 class periods the disparity of possible achievement under the two systems at once becomes obvious. By reason of the long and guaranteed duration of the time to be devoted to language study over there the teacher in beginning language feels himself under no pressure for speed and can use a method which measures progress not by quantity but by the mastery of the materials presented. It must also be borne in mind that the students pursuing language study over there are a highly selected group.

Now these very favorable conditions are entirely overlooked or ignored by the critics of modern foreign language teaching in this country, who contrast achievements here with those attained in Europe, and our writers of modern foreign language textbooks, irritated or stimulated by this criticism, have without realizing the dilemma tried by various and ingenious presentations of materials to approximate the results of language study in Europe and at the same time meet the quantitative academic demand in this country. The generally accepted objective of modern language study in this country is a reading knowledge of the foreign language but there are wide and hostile differences of opinion as to the method or procedure by which this reading knowledge is to be acquired. One school says we should learn to read by reading, another maintains that the orthodox way as well as the most effective and satisfying way is to approach reading ability through practice in speaking and writing the language. It may help to clarify the issue if we consider the basic fact that the ability to read a language intelligently and to understand it when spoken involves the knowledge of a

passive vocabulary; the ability to speak and write a foreign language with some degree of fluency presumes and requires the command of an active vocabulary. The learning of an active vocabulary in any language logically carries with it the ability to read that language but is it possible to learn a passive vocabulary apart from an active one, and if so, how? It is the lack of clear analysis of the relations between active and passive vocabularies that leads to confusion and dissatisfaction in the writing and in the use of our beginning language texts. Traditionally, at least since the time of Viëtor, the command of an active vocabulary has been stressed as the sine qua non of learning a foreign language and under such titles as The Natural Method, The Direct Method and others this aim, for a time at least, dominated modern foreign language instruction. Then, because of quantitative educational requirements by our schools and because of the discovery that the curricula of our schools were less generous toward modern foreign languages than those in European countries a reaction set in which made a mere reading knowledge the primary objective. But our beginning textbooks still contain vocabulary drills and exercises in conversation and composition which belong to the active vocabulary method so that neither the teacher nor the students know what is being aimed at.

It would therefore be a boon to modern foreign language study if a definite and complete separation were made between beginning courses whose aim and method would lead to the acquisition of an active vocabulary and those whose aim and method would lead to the acquisition of a passive vocabulary which would enable the student more quickly and effectively to read the foreign language intelligently and to understand it when spoken. The methods employed in these two courses would obviously be very different. The vocabulary in the active vocabulary course should be developed without the intervention of English, and oral and written composition should begin with the very first lesson, thus initiating Sprachgefühl. Class periods should be doubled in length, vocabularies based largely on illustrative charts, and grammar material should be developed entirely during the class periods. This is the procedure followed in the writer's Laboratory Method in Beginning German, a description of which is given in the Modern Language Journal for February, 1918. In a passive vocabulary course there should be no oral or written composition. The time and effort generally required for such work should be devoted to the learning of a given vocabulary and the reading of connected discourse in which the given vocabulary with its quota of grammar would be used in relevant and interesting narrative. It would naturally follow that more rapid progress can be made by this method than by the other if the materials are systematically arranged.

During the last two years the writer has followed this procedure by what he calls *The Utility Method* in *Beginning German*, and the results obtained from the experiment justify the claim and lead to the conclusion that a passive vocabulary may be learned apart from the drills and exercises

attending the acquisition of an active vocabulary. The successful conduct of such a course presupposes two necessary implements. First, an adequate and carefully selected vocabulary which is classified and printed according to a uniform pattern and presented in such a way as to make it interesting and impressive. Second, a concurrent and progressive utilization of lesson vocabularies in relevant, connected narrative prose. Since vocabularies as published in the prevailing texts in beginning German do not meet the above requirement I use as my vocabulary guide my Hand Book of Materials in Beginning German. This book which has been used for many years with the Laboratory Method consists of twenty-four lessons, each one containing a vocabulary of about sixty-five basic words, an installment of grammar and appropriate notes on grammar and syntax. All the essential elements of grammar are covered. The vocabularies are all uniformly classified and printed under their respective heads. For example, every lesson contains thirty nouns, ten of each gender in separate spaces. Likewise the adjectives and other parts of speech. These uniform positions of the vocabularies and grammar inflections on the two pages of each lesson which face each other make the book a very practical text for the Utility Method, as will appear.

In order to provide the second essential constituent of this method, namely concurrent reading material specially related to given vocabularies, it was by the very nature of the problem necessary to make up original reading exercises in which the vocabulary and grammar topic of each successive lesson were incorporated into connected, idiomatic narrative prose. These exercises comprise an average of approximately eight hundred words and cover two pages of my new Elementary German Reader, or a total of forty-eight pages. The remaining thirty pages of the Reader contain some familiar passages from the German Bible and German translations of a few well known English poems, like Longfellow's Rainy Day and the German version of the Legend of the Sunflower; three pages of German humor and several pages of selected short poems; one hundred proverbs and fifty riddles; and finally Benedix' Eigensinn, a one act comedy.

In the application of this method to classroom work it is important to keep in mind that its aim is the acquisition of a passive vocabulary, and that the attention and effort of the students must be centered upon the principles and exercises by which the desired results are obtained. To achieve the full benefit of a passive vocabulary, ear training is equally as important as visual exercise. In other words the students should understand what they hear as well as what they read. If not then their task as well as their reward have fallen short. A thorough study and practice on the sounds of the language based on elementary phonetics should therefore be made the foundation of every beginning course. Coming then to the first lesson I shall describe my procedure as a flexible pattern for all subsequent lessons. As an introduction I pronounce each German word in the vocabulary with the key forms of the nouns and the principal parts of the verbs, and the class in

concert, with open books, pronounces each word after me and utters its English equivalent. I then introduce the grammar forms and have the class recite the paradigms after me and finally I explain and illustrate the rules of grammar and syntax. The homework for the second day consists of an intensive study of the given vocabulary and verb forms with special attention to the definite articles and key forms of the nouns and the reading of the Reading Exercise. As the classroom work for the second day I repronounce the words of the vocabulary and the class, with books closed, pronounces each word after me together with its English equivalent. After some grammar drill in concert or individually we take up the Reading Exercise. Here my procedure varies. At first I read some of the sentences and have the class read them after me in concert. Then again I call upon individual students to read the sentences, carefully checking their pronunciation. In all the reading I emphasize and insist upon proper phrasing of words and particularly upon modulation and expression, for these are the qualities that put life and interest into reading. Another important phase of the reading exercise is the grammatical analysis of sentence elements, that is the explanation of case, tense, mode, word order, etc. This is in fact an exercise in passive grammar which properly accompanies the development of a passive vocabulary and which fully provides the grammatical requirement for a reading knowledge of the language.

Another feature of this method is the frequency and nature of the tests that are given. After the completion of each lesson which includes the mastery of the vocabulary and grammar forms and readiness in analyzing and correctly translating the Reading Exercise the class is given a written test. The pattern for this and similar subsequent tests is this: I dictate fifteen nouns, five of each gender, ten adjectives and adverbs and ten verbs when we come to them. The students fill in the definite articles and key forms of the nouns with their English equivalents. They write the English words for the adjectives and the principal parts of the verbs with their meanings. One part of the test consists of grammar forms and drills. Finally I dictate at least three sentences from the Reading Exercise which are translated into English. With such a regular standardized check up on each lesson the students are able to make definite preparation and there is general agreement among my students that these tests constitute a great incentive to sustained interest and effort in their work.

By this method of immediately relating and utilizing a definite previously studied vocabulary in connected prose narrative the students advance in easy and rapid stages to ready comprehension of what they read and the amount of reading that can be done will also be proportionately greater. The Utility Method may well claim to be a new and improved approach to the reading objective in modern foreign language study.

Foreign Language Curriculums and Course Enrollments in Michigan Accredited Secondary Schools

NEWTON S. BEMENT
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(Author's summary.—A report covering a fractional area, intended as an exemplary fragment of the mosaic which a national map of foreign language study must resemble instead of presenting a composite generalization. Its purpose is not to identify a trend, but to divide the trend into its elements in order to influence it by indicating the probable direction in which efficiency lies. If the foreign language curriculum is in need of change, this need is to be determined neither by trends figured on the basis of the per cent of the sum total of school populations to which the sum total of enrollments in foreign language courses is equivalent, nor by trends figured on the basis of the curriculum found in the numerical majority of schools. This need is rather to be determined, with certain exceptions, solely by school size.)

EARLY in the school year 1939-1940 a special questionnaire was sent to each of Michigan's 624 accredited secondary schools, concerning the curriculum in foreign languages and the enrollment in courses offered during the first semester. The form was detailed in a manner to avoid such confused or heterogeneous reports as might lead to erroneous statistics.

This questionnaire elicited an 85.40 per cent response, coming from schools whose average number of graduates in 1939–1940 had been 75.34, whereas the average number for the nonresponsive schools had been 56.73. The following precise survey covers, therefore, practically all the large secondary schools of the area. In 1938–1939 they had produced 88.60 per cent of the total number of graduates.

The Foreign Language Curriculum in Michigan Accredited Secondary Schools

On the basis of the foreign language curriculum the schools in this area may be divided into sixteen groups, shown in Table I.

The sixteen groups in Table I are presented in order of size, in order to afford a preliminary glimpse of the relative importance or position of each foreign language in the school curriculums of this area. Now, turning from language-importance to school-importance, let us group these same schools under the headings "one-language schools," "two-language schools," etc., and, instead of tabulating all the data, let us merely summarize the findings with reference to the majority of schools in each category.

The One-Language Schools (55.3 per cent)

Latin.—The majority (81 per cent) of the "Latin" schools (49.24 per cent of all reporting schools, in Table I), which averaged 34 graduates each in 1939, offer two years of Latin. About half of them offer the two

TABLE I

THE DIVISION OF 533 MICHIGAN ACCREDITED SECONDARY SCHOOLS ON THE BASIS OF THE FOREIGN LANGUAGES TAUGHT IN THEM

	Per cent
Latin	49.24
Latin, French	30.68
French	4.92
No foreign language	3.78
Latin, French, German	3.40
Latin, French, German, Spanish	1.70
Latin, French, Spanish	1.32
Latin, German	1.32
Latin, Polish	1.13
German	0.94
Latin, Greek, French, German, Spanish	0.37
Latin, French, German, Italian	0.18
Latin, German, Spanish	0.18
Latin, French, Polish	0.18
Latin, Greek, French	0.18
French, German, Spanish	0.18

years in grades 10-12, one-sixth in grades 9-12, one-sixth in grades 10-11, and one-sixth in grades 9-10.

A few schools (only 3 per cent), likewise averaging 34 graduates, offer three years, generally in grades 9-12 but also, in two instances, in grades 9-11.

Of the remaining Latin schools (15 per cent), one-half, or the larger ones (averaging 45 graduates), offer four years, and the others (averaging 20 graduates) offer a single year in grades 9–12, that is to say, with a choice of grade.

French.—The majority (80 per cent) of the "French" schools (4.92 per cent of all reporting schools, in Table I), which averaged 19 graduates each in 1939, offer two years of French, generally in grades 10–12, less frequently in grades 11–12, and a single time in grades 9–11. The remaining French schools offer one year, generally in grades 10–12.

German.—All the "German" schools (per cent is shown in Table I), which averaged 16 graduates each in 1939, offer two years, generally in grades 10-12, and a single time in grades 9-12.

Summary.—The one-language schools comprise a few more than half the total number of Michigan accredited secondary schools, but they are considerably below the average in number of graduates. In most instances they offer a two-year course, which is rarely begun earlier than the tenth grade and is generally offered in two optional years in grades 10–12.

The Two-Language Schools (33.1 per cent)

Latin-French.—The majority (69.1 per cent) of the "Latin-French" schools, which comprise the bulk (92.5 per cent) of the two-language schools, with an average of 68 graduates each in 1939, offer two years of

each language. Approximately half of them offer Latin in grades 9-10, followed by French in grades 11-12. In all the others the two language courses overlap, but Latin is rarely begun as late as the tenth grade or completed later than the eleventh, while French is rarely begun as early as the ninth grade although it is frequently begun in the tenth.

The second largest group (12.3 per cent) of Latin-French schools, with an average of 125.25 graduates each in 1939, offers four years of Latin and two of French. In half of them, French is begun in the eleventh grade; in one-fourth of them, French may be started in the ninth grade and completed as late as the twelfth.

Most of the remaining Latin-French schools, which are considerably larger than those just mentioned, offer three or four years of each language, and ordinarily in the same grades. Occasional large schools (averaging 243 graduates) offer more French than Latin. In these cases, French is begun either in the tenth grade after Latin, or in the ninth as an alternative for it.

Latin-German.—These schools, which in 1939 averaged 48 graduates each, are only seven in number. The place of German in them is nearly identical with that of French in the Latin-French schools.

Latin-Polish.—The "Latin-Polish" schools are six in number and averaged 25.33 graduates each in 1939. In all six, Polish is begun in the ninth grade. In five of them, Latin also is begun in the ninth grade. Such a situation, that is, one in which the modern foreign language is begun in the same grade as Latin, occurs in only 38 per cent of the other two-language schools. Thirty-eight per cent is sufficient evidence, however, of a break with tradition as regards the relative position of Latin in the foreign language curriculum. Furthermore, among those not included in this survey, a few Michigan accredited secondary schools begin the modern foreign language in the ninth or tenth grade and offer Latin after rather than before or at the same time as the modern language.

Summary.—The two-language schools, comprising approximately one-third of the total, are mainly "Latin-French." In size they are average or larger, and, among the latter, the larger the school, the greater is the tendency to place French and Latin on an equal footing in the curriculum.

The Three-Language Schools (5.4 per cent)

Latin-French-German and Latin-French-Spanish.—The three-language schools are larger and fewer than the two-language schools, but the facts are approximately the same with reference to the grade level at which the different languages are offered.

The "Latin-French-German" schools averaged 188 graduates each in 1939, and the "Latin-French-Spanish" schools, 414. Only one school, with 79 graduates, offers four years of each language (Latin, French, German). In the largest group the average offering is 3.16 years of Latin, 2.61 years of French, and 2.16 years of German.

The Four-Language Schools (2.2 per cent)

Latin-French-German-Spanish.—Only the largest schools, with an average of 644 graduates each in 1939, offer four or more foreign languages. A single school offers four years of each language, and two offer only two years of each language. The average offering is 3.44 years of Latin, 3.11 years of French, 2.44 years of German, and 2.55 years of Spanish.

The fewness of the four-language schools is not at all an index of their importance. Since they supply a considerable fraction of our college population, they appreciably raise the amount and the standard of the foreign-language training possessed by applicants for admission as freshmen.

Major and Salient Facts

The major facts, which are major merely because they apply to 88.4 per cent of all the schools mentioned, can be readily presented and easily comprehended in tabular form. This is done in Table II, which consolidates and summarizes the major aspects of the foregoing picture of the foreign language curriculum in these schools.

TABLE II

OUTLINE OF THE MAJOR FACTS OF THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE CURRICULUM IN MICHIGAN ACCREDITED SECONDARY SCHOOLS

- 55.3 per cent offer one foreign language:
 - 49.24 per cent offer Latin:
 - 81 per cent of this 49.24 per cent offer 2 years:
 - 50 per cent of this 81 per cent offer it in grades 10-12
 - 16% per cent offer it in grades 9-10
 - 16 per cent offer it in grades 9-12
 - 16} per cent offer it in grades 10-11
 - Average number graduates, these schools: 34
 - 4.92 per cent offer French:
 - 80 per cent of this 4.92 per cent offer 2 years:
 - Majority of these offer it in grades 10-12
 - Average number graduates, these schools: 19
 - 0.94 per cent offer German:
 - All offer 2 years:
 - Majority of them offer it in grades 10-12
 - Average number graduates, these schools: 16
- 33.1 per cent offer two foreign languages:
 - 30.68 per cent offer Latin and French:
 - 69.1 per cent of this 30.68 per cent offer 2 years of each:
 - Half offer Latin in grades 9-10, French in grades 11-12
 - Half offer Latin in grades 9-11, French in grades 10-12
 - Average number graduates, these schools: 68
 - 12.3 per cent offer 4 years of Latin, 2 years of French:
 - Half offer Latin in grades 9-12, French in grades 11-12
 - A fourth offer Latin in grades 9-12, French in 9-12
 - Average number graduates, these schools: 125.25

Probably the most striking fact observable in Table II is that the 33.1 per cent of schools offering two foreign languages have an average number of graduates which is more than twice as great as that of the 55.3 per cent of schools which offer only one foreign language. Thus, the total number of pupils who have access to instruction in two foreign languages is apparently greater than the total number of those who have access to instruction in one foreign language only. But the foreign language courses offered in the two groups of schools are ordinarily of the same length, with the result that in most of the two-language schools the pupil has merely the advantage of variety, because the curriculum seems deliberately arranged to offer him not more than two years of either language.

The provision of a choice is a mark of generosity, but perhaps misplaced, in the circumstances just noted. And even in instances in which the pupil achieves two years of preparation in each language, a study of college records shows that such a preparation pattern is inferior to one consisting of three years of a single language. Methods and objectives in general are wrenched and distorted by the foreshortened perspective which results, in most course planning, from the probability of a two-year maximum duration. This probability is the problem by which at least 75 per cent of the accredited schools are confronted. Approximately half of this number place their two-year course in grades 10-12 or 11-12, thus indicating, perhaps, either that they consider the subject too advanced for ninthgraders, or that they anticipate continuation of the subject in college and desire to avoid a time-gap in the student's pre-college preparation pattern and thus likewise to avoid failure to continue the first-chosen language in college. Such administrative forethought is obviously to be recommended because, in case we go on contending with two-year courses, it may lead to placing them all in grades 11-12, preceded by a multiple-purpose, general, introductory course giving the effect of a three-year sequence to whatever foreign language course is begun in the eleventh grade.

Pupil Enrollment in Foreign Language Courses

As I have indicated, 533 or 85.4 per cent of Michigan's 624 accredited secondary schools, including practically all the larger ones, answered a questionnaire concerning foreign language enrollment during the first semester of 1939–1940.

Of these 533 schools, 452 or 84.8 per cent had first-year Latin in their curriculums, and 387 or 85.62 per cent of the latter were actually teaching first-year Latin during the semester in question, whereas the remaining 65 or 14.38 per cent were not, for the reason, stated by them, that their course was offered only in alternate years. The latter schools are, comparatively speaking, the smaller ones. Their average number of graduates in 1939 was 59.7, whereas the average number for those in which first-year Latin was actually being taught, was 86.76.

In schools in which first-year Latin was actually taught during the first semester of 1939–1940, the average enrollment in that course was 42.12, which is equivalent to 48.5 per cent of the average number of graduates in 1939. This manner of expressing course enrollment, by indicating to what fraction of the number of graduates it is equivalent, has a significance obviously different from the one in which course enrollment in a given subject is expressed as a fraction of the total population of the school. But of course the use of the last-known number of graduates is not ideal, although it is the most logical, since a course is not restricted to pupils of a given grade and therefore will not number its members among graduates of a given year exclusively.

During the years 1934-1939 the total population of Michigan accredited secondary schools increased from 202,123 in the school year 1933-1934 to 245,856 in the school year 1938-1939, or 21.6 per cent, while the number of graduates increased from 37,696 to 50,106, or 33.1 per cent. During the same period the total enrollment in foreign languages decreased from slightly less than one-third of the total school population to slightly more than one-fourth of it (the number of pupils enrolled in foreign language courses decreased 13.8 per cent; in 1939-1940 it was 62,196). In other words, the decrease in foreign language enrollment in comparison with the number of graduates was even greater than in comparison with the total school population. Well, then, did a higher percentage graduate because more pupils avoided difficult subjects? The answer appears to be affirmative according to all statistical data, and it will probably continue to be affirmative just as long as the pupil's choice of courses continues to be broadened by new subjects in the curriculum. Foreign languages lost some ground to each of the other academic subjects, and the academic group as a whole lost ground to the non-academic.

And so you are permitted to suspect either that an ample per cent of the recent increment to the school population that does not study foreign languages does not graduate either, or vice versa, as you please, or even that foreign languages now prevent fewer pupils from graduating than was formerly the case. In any case, foreign language study could be prevented from contributing to the unhappiness of that mentally depressed portion of the high-school population which for some reason or other even under present conditions is unlikely to graduate, merely by placing foreign language study beyond the occupied area, that is, by restricting the average or two-year course to the eleventh and twelfth grades, and possibly by prefacing it with the general, multiple-purpose course already mentioned. This would protect not only the ninth- or tenth-grader, but also the foreign language, which after all has its rights, if we stop to ponder what, for example, ninth-graders have made textbook writers do to Latin.

Such a step would be more in accord with the relative difficulty of the

subject, and would place the subject in a position to invite a more triedand-tested pupil into the beginning course. The suggestion can be made, however, only with reference to the average, or small, high school. With reference to the large high school the matter has a very different aspect. For instance, the University of Michigan year after year receives the majority of its freshmen from approximately the same high schools, and these schools are mainly not in the "average" category. Out of a total of fifteen entrance credit units, the average freshman offered 3.53 units of foreign language in 1938, 3.59 in 1939, and 3.48 in 1940, although none was required. In each case the number of units is more than the freshman could accumulate from the total foreign language curriculum of the average Michigan accredited secondary school. The average college freshman is hardly the product of the average high school, and the implications of this fact, in both directions, must be borne in mind.

The superstructure of the foreign language curriculum as originally planned in the small high school, has in the majority of instances migrated into the college, leaving a gap which the base has been slow in moving up to fill, although the movement is now becoming evident. In general, no doubt, the small high school feels that it should offer a given course in the same grade as the large high school, whereas it is obviously better for the small high school not to attempt imitations but frankly and dutifully to accept the handicap of inferior opportunity resulting from inferior size and the narrower outlook and aspirations of its student population. By the same token, the very large high schools, which are the bulwarks of educational opportunity in the secondary field, should be obligated by their superior opportunity to assume a superior responsibility by maintaining and improving the standards of scientific and cultural training without regard for the average, the trend, or anything except the development of the best candidates for the scientific and intellectual leadership of our civilization.

Let us now return to the matter of course enrollment during the first semester of 1939-1940. This is presented in a comparative manner in Table III.

Table III presents the statistics of a pyramidal structure with a base composed of all schools and an apex formed by the comparatively few very large schools which rise above both their small and their medium-size neighbors. In the second and in the last two columns, opposite the name of each language, the figures correspond to such a structure, but inverted, for that language.

Most apparent in Table III is the presence of the two-year Latin course as a staple even in the smaller schools, whereas a three- or four-year Latin course or a two-year German or Spanish course is a luxury found only in the largest schools. It is also apparent, by comparison, that French does not

TABLE III

A Comparative Study of the Foreign Language Curriculum, the Course Enrollment, and the Number of Graduates, in Michigan Accredited Secondary Schools in 1939–1940

		Per cent	Per cent	Average number	Average	Per cent
		of	of	of graduates, in	enrollment	of the num-
Foreign		reporting	those having		in course.	ber of grad
		schools	it in curric-	in column at left.	in schools	uates in
langu	-	having the course in their	actually taught it in	same average, for schools that were	indicated in the	1939, to which the course en-
cour	rse					
		curric-	first semester		column	rollment is
*		ulums	1939–1940	ing the course	Column	equivalent
LATIN:	1st-yr	84.80	85.62	86.76 (59.7)	42.12	48.50
	2nd-yr	84.60	89.55	90.2 (27.1)	34.3	38.00
	3rd-yr	19.10	80.30	196.2 (75.3)	17.46	8.80
	4th-yr	14.20	75.00	202.6 (155.6)	14.8	7.30
GREEK:	1st-yr	0.37	100.00	326.5	10.5	3.20
	2nd-yr	0.18	100.00	585.	1.	0.17
FRENCH:	1st-yr	39.96	96.25	144.97 (50.45)	38.17	26.33
	2nd-yr	37.14	94.94	158.7 (47.07)	29.66	18.68
	3rd-yr	7.50	98.88	292.42 (284.83)	15.18	5.19
	4th-yr	3.56	98.88	376.61 (110.83)	11.3	3.00
GERMAN:	1st-yr	7.69	99.26	273.21 (141.16)	35.51	12.99
	2nd-yr	7.50	99.44	293.48 (111.00)	26.97	9.19
	3rd-yr	1.12	99.82	464.2 (759.00)	7.6	1.63
	4th-yr	0.18	00.00	(759.00)	0.	0.00
SPANISH:	1st-yr	3.56	99.82	461.77 (832.00)	74.05	16.03
	2nd-yr	3.00	99.82	546.53 (832.00)	42.93	7.85
	3rd-yr	0.93	99.82	597.25 (759.00)	5.25	0.87
	4th-yr	0.37	99.82	960. (759.00)	5.	0.52
ITALIAN:	1st-yr	0.18	100.00	645.	110.	17.05
	2nd-yr	0.18	100.00	645.	54.	8.37
POLISH:	1st-yr	1.12	99.82	116.6 (32.)	66.6	57.11
	2nd-yr	0.93	99.82	138. (32.)	27.75	20.40
	3rd-yr	0.18	100.00	15.	15.	100.00
	4th-yr	0.37	100.00	23.5	19.	80.85
GENERAL	LAN-					
GUAGE:	1st-yr	1.50	100.00	157.62	33.25	21.09
	2nd-yr	0.37	100.00	370.	28.	7.56
NONE		7.50		37.7		

fall into either category, but occupies the intermediate position. Thus, and in view of its grade position (Table II), French seems more likely to become, in the area concerned, a two-year staple than a three- or four-year luxury.

But no doubt the tables should be allowed to speak for themselves to the observer. For this area at least, the picture has changed in various respects from the one presented just a decade previously, in the well-known national report, and it appears to have changed through crystallization along certain lines, so that now it is easier to discern the probable direction in thich the greatest efficiency lies.

If the foreign language curriculum is in need of change, it is doubtful whether the nature of such change should be determined on the basis either of subject-election trends among the majority of the total school population of an area, or of the foreign-language-curriculum trend in the numerical majority of schools. More logically, it might be made exclusively on the basis of school size, since a rearrangement of the foreign language curriculum would seem most likely to be profitable in those schools which graduate, for example, less than thirty pupils annually.

Attacks on foreign language study, which in considerable part have arisen from the situation in the numerically great body of small high schools and have then been carried to all secondary schools regardless of size, would thus be limited by proper discrimination. For in such circumstances the grade in which foreign language study might be undertaken, and consequently the length of the course or courses, would be controlled ordinarily by the size, or classification, of the high school.

For instance, the foreign language curriculum, beginning with a minimum for the smallest schools, might be graduated to offer the pupil the following choices:

- 1. Two years of one language, in grades 11, 12.
- One year of general introductory study, plus two years of one language, in grades 10, 11, 12.
- One year of general introductory study, plus two years of either one of two languages, in grades 10, 11, 12.
- 4. Three years of any one of two or more languages, in grades 10, 11, 12.
- One year of general introductory study, plus three years of any one of two or more languages, in grades 9, 10, 11, 12.
- And so on, increasing the foreign language curriculum according to school size, and bearing in mind the responsibilities and prerogatives of the very large high school.

Seven Reasons for Studying Foreign Languages

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(Author's summary.—These are seven practical and cultural reasons why foreign language studies are indispensable to a liberal education.)

MANY college administrations today are faced with the question of whether or not foreign language studies should be required for a liberal arts degree. This question at once leads to another: Is it possible for a person to become liberally educated without having had any contact with a foreign language or culture. In order to answer these questions intelligently, it is necessary to examine what such a study contributes to the college course.

(1) The first and most obvious purpose of study in the Foreign Language Department is to train the student who wishes to become a language teacher, to study and travel abroad, to enter the diplomatic service, to become a foreign correspondent, or to take up some other work which requires

knowledge of a foreign language.

(2) Since the average student does not study a foreign language for this purpose, he does not master it thoroughly nor does he make direct use of it after he leaves school. This, however, need not detract from the worth of his study. Biology, composition, and speech are included in all curricula without anyone's expecting that all who take these subjects become scientists, writers, or orators. These and many other studies provide mental background and general discipline. It is well known that linguistic studies are invaluable for training the memory. They also form important habits of precision and concentration. As little as two quarters of such study can give a mental preparation which it would be difficult to acquire elsewhere.

(3) Another noteworthy aspect of this kind of study is that it aids the student in his English courses. The foreign language teacher has well been called "the greatest ally of the English teacher." Students often fail in English because it is difficult for them to view their native language objectively. This objectivity can best be gained through the study of foreign languages. Here the attention is focused on the mechanism of language. The student is taken behind the scenes where he can see the ropes and pulleys which control operations. Such a study heightens appreciation of English, produces an awareness of language, and gives a feeling for word meanings. It is significant that the National Council of Teachers of English wrote in one of its annual reports: "Some knowledge of at least one foreign language (preferably Latin, Greek, or German) is indispensable. It is highly desirable that the student shall have studied at least two foreign languages." If this is true we may ask ourselves: Can we prepare English teachers adequately without requiring them to do this work.

(4) The study of foreign languages enhances the value of many other college courses besides English. It benefits music students who do not care to utter meaningless sounds when they sing Latin masses, French operas, or German Lieder. It is of value to students of science who have occasion to consult foreign periodicals. It will help students of home economics who wish to read French fashion magazines or cook books. It is beneficial to students of history and geography who want to read foreign maps. It is imperative to all who expect to work for advanced degrees.

The study of foreign cultures also assists the student in his other college courses. It increases the student's appreciation of foreign music and art by acquainting him with the background which produced it. It aids the student of economics and sociology by broadening his social outlook and introducing him to a variety of human relationships and situations. It gives the history student a fresh view of his subject, and aids immeasurably all who are interested in religion and philosophy. There is hardly a course in the catalogue

which is not helped by such a study.

(5) Work in the Foreign Language Department is most beneficial in giving the student a more intelligent conception of his native culture. Since white men have lived on this continent for only three or four centuries, many aspects of our civilization originated in other parts of the world. Our Christianity is Oriental; our Protestantism was born in central Europe; our philosophy comes from Greece, ancient Rome, and other distant places. Much of our art and many of our social customs can be traced to foreign lands. Every important country on earth has made its contribution to our way of living. Knowledge of one or more of these older civilizations will give the student a perspective of American culture and provide him with a basis for comparison. More than any other study, courses in foreign languages and cultures will increase his comprehension and appreciation of America.

(6) In a literal, geographic sense, study in the Foreign Language Department is exceptionally broadening. Here the student catches a glimpse of life outside his own national boundaries. Education, mathematics, and many other studies—from their very nature—cannot perform this service. Other subjects—sociology, philosophy, economics, for instance—perform it only incidentally. History offers a little more in this respect, but it is usually confined to the past. Since many college students have had opportunity for only provincial contacts, they stand in special need of this broadening influence. At graduation they will discover that the world extends far beyond their door-steps. Students whose education has never led them outside their geographical surroundings will find themselves bewildered in our modern world.

(7) There is one more argument in favor of the study of foreign languages and perhaps it is the most important argument of all. We are living in a time when sinister forces are seeking to destroy many centuries of human progress. Military, racial, and economic barriers are being erected everywhere.

Differences are emphasized and hatreds fostered. What will combat these forces more effectively than the enlightenment of education? Prejudice against other human beings can be overcome only by sympathetic understanding, and this understanding can come only as the result of knowledge. Especially today, it is imperative that every effort be made to instruct the coming generation in fairness and open-mindedness. In the average college, the Foreign Language Department is peculiarly equipped to render this service. In fact it is this department's most valuable and indispensable contribution to present-day education.

Science has drawn humanity together by communication and transportation. Commerce has made peoples interdependent economically. Religion, music, and art recognize no national boundaries. In such a world, shall edu-

cation remain spiritually and culturally isolated?

Cultural Content of German Grammar Texts

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(Author's summary.—An evaluation of the cultural content of some commonly used German grammars of high school level; the reliability of the method now used in measuring cultural items.)

ONLY since 1924 has serious consideration been given to the cultural objective in foreign language study. Although it was first hinted at in 1914 in the study of foreign languages made by the National Education Association it was not until the Modern Language Investigation was launched in 1924 that the cultural objective was finally listed as a definite objective of foreign language study and then only as an ultimate objective.

An analysis of the work of the National Survey of Secondary Education in 1932 showed that at that time there seemed to be a general agreement within the profession on two cultural objectives, namely—(1) knowledge of the foreign country and its people, and (2) increased knowledge of English words, English grammar, and relationships between the foreign language and English.

During the last six years, several studies have been made to determine the cultural content of textbooks used in various language courses, or, to determine the response of courses of study to the new objectives. Only two of these studies were concerned with the field of German and they both were studies of German reading texts. The purpose of the study here being reported was threefold, namely—(1) to evaluate the cultural content of a few of the more recent German grammar texts and compare them with older texts, (2) to determine the reliability of the method being used in the cultural count of texts, and (3) to survey the response being given to the new cultural objectives by the state courses of study of the states comprising the North Central Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges.

To determine the cultural content of the texts considered, an adaptation of the technique employed by Gertrude Gilman in her study of French readers was used. This method was designed for modern language texts by Miss Gilman and Mr. Coleman in cooperation with educational experts of the University of Chicago.

The cultural-informational items were classified both as to type of material and as to relative length or importance. The various cultural materials were classified according to the subject headings used at the Congressional Library. Whenever more than one heading was applicable to a given reference, the reference was listed under the heading which best fitted its principal interest. As to relative importance the cultural material in Miss Gil-

¹ G. M. Gilman, The Cultural Materials in the French Curriculum of Illinois High Schools, M. A. thesis, University of Chicago.

man's study was classified under the following "weightings": note, suggestion, allusion, mention, statement, description, exposition, and picture. For the purposes of the present study the "weightings," allusion and suggestion, were too subjective, depending too much on the knowledge of the classifier rather than actual textual information. They were therefore omitted. A definition of each of the other weightings follows.

Note: This key word was used to designate any material found in the notes. Material of an informational sort shedding light on the customs or habits of the Germans or of anything pertaining to their life was included.

Mention: The name of a person, place, or thing without any indication of its nature.

Statement: Statement of a single fact.

Description: A description is comprised of three or more statements on the same subject, placed consecutively, giving detailed information.

Exposition: An exposition is a detailed explanation of two or more paragraphs.

Picture: This applied to a picture of any size which pictures anything

definitely German.

All texts received the same consideration but in spite of all precautions the procedure had a certain element of subjectivity, especially in the determination of the type to which an item belonged. The type of culture and the weights are objective devices but subjective judgments apply them. Two people assigning weights or types to the same items will occassionally differ. It was one of the aims of the present study to find out how great this variation might be. The data were presented in the form of tables. Each book was scanned three times. The three readings were then compared. Also from each book a section was selected to be scanned by a second person. This was done as a second check on the reliability of the technique.

The German grammar texts examined in this study were the following.

(A) A First German Book (1917-1928).

(B) Learning German (1935).

Frederick Betz and William R. Price, American Book Company, New York

(C) A First German Grammar (1916-1926). Philip S. Allen and Paul H. Phillipson,

(D) First Book in German (1935). James A. Chiles and Josef Wiehr, Ginn and Company, New York

(E) Elementary German (1927-1931). Frederick W. Meisnest,

(F) Beginning German (1935). Otto P. Schinnerer,

The Macmillan Company, New York
(G) Ein Ausflug in die deutsche Sprache (1936).

Emilie White,
Doubleday Doran Company, Garden City, N. Y.

(H) German Book One (1938).

Philip S. Allen and Dorothea Von Harjes Davis, Scott, Foresman and Company, Chicago, Illinois

(I) Sprechen Sie Deutsch (1933).

Oscar C. Burkhard,

Henry Holt and Company, Chicago, Illinois

(J) New Approach to German (1932).

Eugene Jackson,

Longmans, Green, and Company, New York

The texts listed above have all appeared since 1932 except texts A, C, and E. These three texts were included in the count so that their successors, respectively B, D, and F might be compared with them. The point was to determine what response, if any, the publishers have made to the new cultural objective in their newer publications. Except for the last two texts, they all state that sufficient material is included in the text to provide an entire first year's work in German.

The texts were considered in the order that they occur in the list above. Four tables were provided for the analysis of each text. One compared the results of the three separate counts by listing the total items of each type for each count. This same table shows the variations between count two and count three and the variations between count one and count three. A second table compared the results of the three separate counts by listing the total items of each weight for each count. The third table was similar to the first but showed the variations between the counts of the two different operators. The fourth table was similar to the second and showed the variations between the counts of the two operators in the total weights. The types and the weights having the highest frequency were easily observed from these tables.

A fifth table was provided to compare more readily the number of items in the weightings of each book. This table shows the total number of pages, total number of items, and the average number of items per page. The items are further compared by arranging them in two separate groups, the mention group and a group composed of all other weightings. This shows the greater consideration given the weightier items in the newer texts. All of the texts abound in mentions. However, a mention will mean little to the student unless he has met the item before and knows something of it. All the other weights, however, will have a meaning in themselves as they make a statement or explanation about the item concerned, or, in the case of a picture, some item of German life is actually pictured. With the aid of the above mentioned tables each text was analyzed and the analysis is presented in the following paragraphs.

Text A and text B.

The first six books were analyzed in pairs so that in the newer text in each case the effect, if any, of the cultural objectives set up in the last decade might be detected. The authors of the above texts make a definite

statement that it is their purpose to provide cultural material in their new text. "While a few passages of the anecdotal type are included, the bulk of the reading material is of a distinctly cultural nature. The selections present in genuine and authentic prose some of the timeless characters of German life, art and letters. The pupil who reads this material with understanding may safely be said to have some knowledge of things German."²

The earlier text has a per page item count of 1.52; the latter text has 1.33. Of the total per page, however, text B has .36 item per page in the heavier weightings while the older text has only .19. The older book has only 14 expositions while the new book has 53. These figures readily show that the authors have improved their book in the cultural-informational count.

Text C and text D.

These books were published by Ginn and Company. The successor of text C is a decided improvement as far as cultural-informational material is concerned. The first text went through several revisions from 1916 to 1928 but is still decidedly a "grammar text."

Text C has an average of 1.69 items per page, but of this number 1.48 items per page belong to the weighting, *mention*. This leaves then only .21 item per page of the heavier items. Text D has only an average of .8 item per page, but of this amount .34 item per page are of the heavier weightings. It has 73 expositions while text C has only 28. The large number of expositions in text D accounts for the small number of items per page. The First Book in German shows definitely a trend toward the inclusion of more cultural material.

Text E and text F.

While these two texts are not written by the same authors, they are both published by the Macmillan Company. Beginning German was published eight years later than Elementary German and thus had the advantage of the opportunity to incorporate within its pages any advance in theory. It came out after the Modern Language Study reported.

Text E makes no statement as to the reason for the selection of various items of reading within its covers. However, text F states in its preface concerning its reading selections . . . "they are to familiarize the student with some of the elementary facts about Germany."

Text E has only .64 cultural item per page, while text F, the newer edition, has 2.25 items per page. Thus the latter in that respect is much superior to the former. Text F, however, has placed its main stress on "cities." Out of the total 570 items 226 are items concerning "cities." Nevertheless text F has definitely responded to the cultural-informational objective.

3 Otto P. Schinnerer, Beginning German (New York, 1935), p. x.

^{*} Frederick Betz and William R. Price, Learning German (New York, 1935), pp. vi-vii.

Texts G, H, I, and J.

These four texts have all been published since 1932. The first two definitely show the influence of the new language objectives. As compared with the older texts analyzed they are much richer in cultural-informational content.

Text G has an average of 2.21 item per page. This is the highest for any text in this last group. Of this figure 1.42 items per page are mentions and the remainder, .79 item per page, are of the heavier weights. This figure is the highest figure for any of the books. It abounds in pictures of all phases of German civilization. While, like most of the other texts, the type of items most numerous is cities, literature comes in a close second. The type of items in third place is geography. Text G is definitely a cultural text.

Text H is peculiar among these texts in the abundance of pictures of German life which it contains. All of them have been chosen to illustrate some phase of German civilization. It is outstanding in this respect. It definitely champions the cultural objective in its preface. "A conscious effort has been made to vitalize the course by a social approach to Germany the people, the language, the country, the history, the life today." It does not appear at first glance to equal text G in the number of heavier items. This is due, however, to the extended and detailed treatment of its expositions. Fourteen of these expositions are written in English so that even the slowest linguist in a class may yet read with understanding of the cultural attainments of the German people. This book has an average of 1.48 items per page. Of these items .8 per page are mentions. Approximately .7 item per page are of the heavier kinds. Out of the total 637 items, 219 are expositions and pictures. This book is also unique in that its most numerous type of classification is that of literature with cities taking second place. Geography is a close third. Since this book has as one of its objectives the furnishing of cultural-informational material, it is well fitted for supplying the needs for the study objectives set up by the Modern Language Study.

The last two texts make no claim to be complete grammar and reading texts. Each text makes the statement that other reading matter which will illustrate grammar lessons is to be used. Their statement is verified by the cultural count. Text I has only .75 item per page and out of these .58 item per page belong to the humble mention class, leaving only .17 item for the heavier weightings. Text J parallels this record closely. These two texts are more comparable to the older texts, then, in cultural content. Since this is true, the cultural-informational content of the course will have to depend

largely on the teacher's choice of supplementary material.

Out of the seven newer texts, five have advanced in cultural content beyond the texts of a decade or two ago. The newer texts also do not have the propoganda point of view which has been evident in some of the older texts.

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⁴ Philip S. Allen and Dorothea Davis, German Book One (Chicago, 1938), p. 3.

The reliability of the present technique may be gauged by a comparison of the separate counts of the author and also by a comparison of the results of his counts with those of another investigator. By a study of the tables before mentioned it will be seen that there are few variations of significance. The greatest variations occur in the assignment of items to the various types of culture such as, history, art, literature, homes-home life, buildings, etc. In the assignment of items to the various weights there are no variations of significance. The first count was in each case really a practice count. The second and third counts are in all cases closer together than the first and third, indicating that one cause of variations has been the overlooking of items on the first two counts.

The reliability can best be seen by considering the variations in the total counts for each of the books. The third count of the author is used as the base in figuring the per cents of variation. In all cases but two the difference between count two and count three is less than the difference between counts one and two, which indicates that the amount of overlooked material has decreased with each count. The average per cent of difference between counts two and three is 2.71 and that between counts one and three is 7.75. The average per cent of difference between the final counts of the author and of the independent operator falls between these two at 5.01 per cent. These total counts would indicate a high degree of reliability. As between the last two counts of the author the degree of coincidence is 97.29 per cent. As between the counts of the two operators the degree of coincidence is 95.81.

As a standard with which to measure the state courses of study the present study has used the list of objectives as outlined by the Modern Language Study. These objectives are expected to shape modern language instruction for at least the next generation.⁵ Below are listed the objectives from this group which pertain to cultural items.

Immediate Objectives

 Progressive development of a knowledge of the foreign country, past and present, and of a special interest in the life and characteristics of its people.

Ultimate Objectives

- 3. A special interest in the history, the institutions and the ideals of the foreign country; a better understanding of its contributions to civilization, and a less provincial attitude toward the merits and achievements of other peoples.
- Increased curiosity about the literature and the art of other nations, and a greater ability to understand and enjoy them.

The courses of study designated for investigation were those published by the states which are included in the roll of the North Central Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges. These are twenty in number. Nine of

⁵ Robert D. Cole and James B. Tharp, Modern Foreign Languages and Their Teaching (New York, 1937), p. 38.

these states have adopted no state courses of study in foreign languages. Six of the states have gone all the way with the Modern Language Study. Perhaps the most advanced support of these objectives is given by Montana. Its course of study sets forth the following conception of the cultural aim.

The added concept of "foreign nation study" as one of the forward-looking trends in objectives for modern language study, has been interpreted as a knowledge of a foreign country which affords not only, as formerly, a one-sided literary, historical, and aesthetic appreciation, but also a knowledge of the foreign country from the point of view of its national needs and institutions, its ambitions, its social and policical modes of thought, and an understanding of the problems of political economy that affect the country using the native language which is being studied.

Four other states have accepted as an ultimate objective the cultural-informational aim. One course in process of revision will probably adopt the objectives of the Study. These facts show that the objectives established by the Study before state courses were written have exerted a strong influence for the cultural objective. Since the cultural objective is being recognized more and more as a primary aim, grammar texts, especially those that provide the entire year's work should make an effort to provide suitable material to meet those aims.

Of probable interest to future text book writers is a revelation gleaned from this study. Two fields of culture in which the Germans have made significant contributions have been neglected. Hardly any items of science were present in any of the texts. Only three of the seven recent texts had any great number of items on music. These fields are both attractive to the present day student and should not be neglected in the future.

More Benedictine in the French Class

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(Author's summary.-Now is the time to teach France as well as French in the French class.)

THE present war is having its repercussions in the educational world. A former student teaching in Colorado writes me he had to fight this year to keep French in the high school curriculum and an Idaho superintendent of schools had told him that the present upheaval in Europe will doubtless finish the teaching of French and German in high schools. Maybe so. I remember the Utah boys and girls who made bonfires of their German books in 1917, and a teacher in Providence, R. I. recently told me that German had never come back in her high school since World War I. In spite of a student body of over two thousand it had never been able since 1918 to get the requisite class of twenty. In fact German has now, nearly anywhere, become an exclusively college subject and it is on the laps of the gods whether French follows suit.

Whether it does or it doesn't depends on the fight the French teachers put up. They must follow the example of the Greek and Latin teachers and fight to the last ditch. The principal of the Worcester State College said to me some years ago, "People call my faculty my menagerie for when I find a man so penetrated with his subject that it stews right out of him I want him to be one of my teachers." And that's what Latin does out of a good teacher. He has to teach far more English grammar than Latin, as much English vocabulary as Latin, European history as well as Roman and an infinite deal of ancient and modern geography that is if he is worth his salt. The French teacher, likewise, must do a lot of exuding of his own Gallic juice during this war. He should find it a most powerful incentive to becoming a better teacher, and if he can't be a broader, more universal teacher and still put over his French drudgery he need not be surprised if he is asked to retire early from the game. He must be the ambassador of France in his school or town. He must give stimulus to the school, town, county, state, or nation for a better understanding of France and the French people. He must show a more excellent way in everything, the French way. Every properly conducted French class begins with a free-for-all fight and keeps it up all the year. I used to announce to my classes each year that every man had two native lands, his own and France. A truism to me but a red rag to them. Of course it was easy to calm them down with such names as Pasteur in medicine, Rousseau in education, and L'Enfant in Washington landscape architecture. It was harder to make them see Monet as the Columbus of light, Debussy, of sound and Jules Romains, of the modern novel, but they got inklings of what I was driving at and at least learned to pronounce far more

trippingly than Lowell Thomas the names in question. But I didn't really convince them how France is in their background until I told them my Benedictine and my Calvé stories. I had been invited early in my first sojourn in France to come into a French garden after lunch and spend the afternoon with some French friends. Our hostess poured us each a tiny glass of Benedictine. I, with the spirit of a cowboy, downed my whole glass immediately and was not offered a second. The others sipped their glasses for three hours while I digested my lesson and they discussed plays, books, history, politics, all the intellectual joys of France. Voltaire would have called me a Huron at the court of Louis XIV. And although I was a college man and a Y.M.C.A. pillar, I had more of the Huron in my makeup than of the modern civilized Frenchman. That was my first contact with French civilization. I had been exposed to college French of the grammatical variety, but had never been told that French civilization surpassed my own. It couldn't! Why, they were happy to walk in family parties in the country. Never went to games. Twenty years after my Benedictine initiation I interviewed Madame Calvé on the subject of maternity among opera singers. She had ceased to be the greatest Carmen of the age, but she was still a charming French woman, civilized and intelligent to her fingertips and toenails. She kindled immediately. Why, her mother had been one of fourteen children and she herself was one of eight. France would always be France as long as there was the peasant stock. She, herself, had no children but nevertheless she was a mother. She mothered 150 blind soldiers and received at her country chateau every summer six young girls whom she coached for grand opera. Would I care to hear about the blind soldiers? She was trying to marry them off to homely orphan girls on the principle that no greater joy could come to a woman than to have a husband who could not see her grow old. Then after her story, realizing she was hostess and I her guest, she wanted to show some interest in me and asked me what possible need there could be for a French teacher as I in an agricultural college. I told her of French pears, one of them, the loveliest, called cuisse-madame; of the work in breeding rustless varieties in wheat, and increasing sugar content in beets, done by the world famous firm of Villemorin, of the importation of Merino sheep by Colbert and their value as Rambouillets to Rocky Mountain agriculture. "You must come and see my Larzac sheep some summer you are in France," she said. "I own a whole mountain and have six hundred sheep that are milked twice a day to make Roquefort cheese. You know I live in the Roquefort country and the cheese means an eleven million dollar business to France as you'd say. You Americans love business more than flavor, but we are an older civilization, let me show you my business."

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Madame Calvé from then on meant to me French conversation in its finest flowering, an exchange of mutually interesting ideas. I have interesting ideas and experiences to pass on to you and I want some in return. Most

of us Americans, especially my relatives and women friends see it as a one sided affair in which they do all the talking and the woman or man who can draw a man out is as rare as a modern dictator's face in a Fra Angelico painting. It was also the Madame Calvé French spirit of good breeding that prompted a French nun who was crossing the Atlantic with a group of other religieuses, to say to the college professor sitting in a steamer chair next to hers, "I wish you'd explain to the Mother Superior what a protestant is. She has no idea."

When I was asked at the end of World War I to explain in a Los Angeles Sunday paper why American soldiers in France were marrying French girls and why so few American girls married French men, the editorial order came, "Give them hell." I didn't need to. All I had to do was tell how Frenchmen didn't want to marry a bossy, self-asserting girl who monopolized a conversation which was limited mostly to quoting what she said, and what Grace said and how they thought they both would die. The young French man or woman on the other hand has instinctive politeness, Christian consideration for the other man, ingrained into him from the cradle. He early learns he must count in society, sing, play the piano, do something to give pleasure to others. And the simplest most acceptable way of winning all hearts from grandmother to the American soldier, invited to Sunday dinner and who probably won't know the difference between Burgundy and Bordeaux, is to draw others out or to be a skilled listener. And the worst sin in the French calandar is neither adultery nor the one against the Holy Ghost, but to be mal élevé, ill bred, and ill breeding for a Frenchman is nothing more nor less than showing a lack of Christian consideration for others. The horror of celebacy is as nothing when compared with that of being yoked with a self-centered chatterer, a principle that no college dean should fail to emphasize and one which every French boy and girl has ground into his very being. All this I told Los Angeles. Possibly it didn't sink in. Nevertheless all this, Calvé, Roquefort and Benedictine should creep into all French courses in high school and college whether France rises or falls, no matter on which side of the Rhine the Nazi stays. All French teachers should constantly emphasize the fact that France, the most highly civilized nation the world has seen since Greece touches every corner of American life and what the French have said and done in every corner of knowledge is an integral part of all education. Whether it be French grammar, French literature, or French conversation, French civilization can never be wholly disregarded in our French classes. That is if they are to be alive forever.

I have been watching the French magazines come to a hiatus in our libraries. I wish all who think that France can ever die would read an article in the last number of the Revue de Paris that came in July 1940. It contains an article on Les Grandes Demeures Françaises by Lucien Corpechot, a news-

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cle ins paper man dear to all garden lovers for his book called Les Jardins de l'Intelligence. Mr. Corpechot speaks of only three chateaux near Paris, two modern and one ancient, but all alike inspiring Virgilian piety because of their associations and because the new is built like the old in the one perfect manner, the house on a low terraced hill and the garden approached by four rows of lindens. The French have built many in this way and will forever be building more. How does he know it? Because France, once having had an aristocracy can never wholly depart from its influence. Aristocracy has become ingrained in French life and cannot depart, though it may be apparently lifeless for a while. But when the aristocracy does direct not in politics but in gardens, then you get perfection. "When you have state socialism" says Mr. Corpechot, "you have state servants. When you have an aristocracy you have more than a servant, you have a servant plus moral warmth, chaleur morale." Judging by the reports that have come to us from France the moral warmth has been sadly lacking, but we know the aristocratic models of good taste have been, and will be eternally, pervading the country and the world. Hugh Walpole in his "Roman Fountain" must have foreseen the case of France. He didn't find his fountain but he did come to realize that when it is a question of the things of the spirit no mere political event can alter them a particle. But it remained for Maeterlinck to summarize best the long view, "France is not dead" said he, on arriving two years ago in New York, "She is crushed, but her people are patient. The struggle is not between nations but between the powers of good and evil. It cannot and will not be the destiny of the human race that evil will conquer and that all that is human in man will be destroyed."

I reported this to a French woman and she arose and kissed me. A beau geste, surely, and one that more French teachers should adopt.

Teaching the Gender of Nouns

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(Author's summary.—A plan is presented for more efficient teaching and testing of the grammatical gender of nouns, which may be used on either the secondary school level or in college classes.)

THE language teacher of the present day is faced with a problem which is difficult of solution. I am referring to the fact that most of our students expect to spend only two years studying a foreign language, whereas we know that only a slight proficiency in it can be acquired in that time.

We who have spent many years in language study realize that the two years devoted to such study by the secondary student is practically only an introduction and their knowledge of the foreign tongue will be very superficial indeed unless the very best methods are employed by us as teachers. In our zeal, therefore, to help our pupils to become proficient—or require them to gain some proficiency, we are likely to assign more work to them than is required in other departments for the same amount of credit; as a result we may get the reputation of being "drivers," satisfied only by a great amount of painstaking work.

Now, we know that even a fair practical reading and speaking knowledge can be gotten only in that way! What is, then, the answer to this problem? As I see it the answer is an increased devotion to our work (remember that we are only a very small minority who believe strongly in the value of foreign languages) an alertness ever for new and better methods of instruction, and a willingness to share with each other any methods or devices that we find helpful. This discussion is not be considered closed, when I finish may remarks; others are then to have the opportunity to speak, which discussion will be to the mutual advantage of us all.

Our interest in teaching the gender of nouns effectively leads us to question the underlying reasons for the fact of gender in foreign nouns, which has been investigated very superficially, it seems, by philologists. Philology, as we understand it today, had its beginnings some one-hundred-forty years ago, the stress being laid since that time on comparisons of related languages and the development of their structures. Nevertheless we must not overlook the fact that a great deal of work in philology was done long before our present civilization. The Chinese had elaborate dictionaries of their own language, as did also the Asyrians who included grammatical explanations of constructions. In India Panini and others penetrated deeply into philology with minute investigations of each sound. Yet from none of these do we have any helpful material to aid in teaching the gender of nouns.

In considering the origin of gender we may review the origin of language itself. The three theories discussed by Max Muller are well-known. The first of these, rather wittily designated as the "bow-wow" explanation, would have us believe that language originated through humans imitating the sounds of animals. The second possibility, the "pooh-pooh" theory holds that speech originated gradually with instinctive utterances of pain, joy, anger, or triumph. The third explanation assumes that men worked together even before language was evolved and that it came about through phonetic accompaniments of acts performed in concert as "heave, ho, ah!" when men lift together on a log. This theory bears the appropriate name of "Yo-he-ho."

Psychologists who interpret the history of the race through the actions of individuals, point out that the early steps in speech development are expressions of pain; later come gurgling and babbling—"satisfaction sighs"—with no idea of communication. Gesture language develops with the spoken; it may indeed have been first, as it seems more primitive. Deaf mutes of different nationalities can make themselves understood more readily than two scholars who lack a common language.

We may accept any of these theories or a combination of them and still not have much help with our problem, so we will search farther, attempting to interpret the developing reasoning power of early man, as Friedrich von der Leven¹ does in studying their early myths.

It is supposed that the earliest races, at the stage in their development when they were trying to make themselves articulate, thought that trees, rocks, hills, and animals all had feelings, senses, and emotions such as their own; it was quite natural therefore that they should allude to a tree, a rock, or a hill as "he" or "she." This theory allows us to use our imaginations with regard to development of neuter gender and also fails to do justice to the fact that endings seem to be the best clue to determining thegrammatical gender of nouns.

Instructors who stress suffixes as the key to this problem have made out long lists of them for each of the genders studied—with long lists of exceptions too, of course. Indeed, the exceptions, the explanations, and the qualifying statements are so burdensome to the beginning student that most teachers avoid going deeply into this method of teaching. Of course, there are a few endings for each language that are reliable enough, but to classify all nouns and all endings with exceptions seems to lead to "confusion worse confounded" in the elementary student's mind.

Those, who believe that gender follows according to endings point out that in the early Indo-European languages certain key words, as those for "mother" and "father," "woman," and "wife" may have been used as examples and other nouns having the same endings were then classed as of

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¹ von der Leyen, Friedrich, Das Märchen-preface and introduction.

the same gender, thus "-a" became known as an ending of feminine gender and "-os" of masculine gender. This explanation thus puts the blame for

gender on analogy.

Leaving theories now and seeking practical help for the teaching of grammatical gender, we find that classroom devices are remarkably scarce. A search through the files of the *Modern Language Journal* for the past ten years proved practically barren of results. My own plan, therefore, which I will shortly present to you, seems to have little competition. It does seem necessary to have a plan for our students to undertake this so-called "battle of the sexes" because it is one of the greatest stumbling blocks of language teaching.

First, it is necessary to convince the student that a careful attention to grammatical gender is absolutely necessary, if he is to attain passable proficiency in the foreign tongue; most students are willing to assume that knowing the nouns themselves is sufficient and that the minor detail of gender is rather unimportant. They have to be reminded that such misuse is as bad as the Chinaman's errors when he says, "My wife, he bake we our beans; she really good beans." Probably the mistakes of our students are

just as ludicrous.

An important suggestion is to insist always on the student's pronouncing the article with the noun; it becomes practically the first syllable of the word, and should be thus learned. This can not be done in the case of Latin, of course. Drills are monotonous, but if the drill is in the form of a game, the motivation excludes monotony. Having the students stand in a circle and count in order in the foreign language, each fifth student giving a feminine noun instead of the numeral, will review the feminine nouns; on another day a different gender should be reviewed.

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According to some of our best authorities, in order to learn a new word we should first hear it, then speak it, then see it—or the symbol representing it; all this should be repeated for the sake of fixing it. Thus we are going through the experiences through which we as children learned our native language, and we know it is hard to improve on nature. If the above sequence is adopted in learning a new word we have the advantage of learning according to our own best type of acquiring, whether we belong to the visual, the aural, the motor or some combination of these, which last Peter Hagboldt's says is the best. It is reasonable to suppose that the more of our senses which participate in the learning of a new word the more thorough the learning.

Coming now to the presentation of a definite plan for teaching the grammatical gender of nouns I claim that this plan makes the prescribed appeal to the above four types of learners. My plan is as follows:

During the first semester or quarter of work in the foreign language have

² Hagboldt, Peter, Modern Language Journal, April, 1932.

the students make out review-lists of nouns according to gender. These should be kept on sheets of paper of different color; for instance the feminine nouns may be written on pink paper, the masculine on green and the neuter on white.

As the lists grow longer have the pupils review them and copy them on the board reserving one part of the board always for the feminine, a second position for the masculine, and a third for the neuter. Assistance is given to learners of the aural and motor type by having these words read individually and in concert. Students may have opportunity to state why certain words may be remembered as belonging to a certain gender. One student said that he noted the words denoting keenness, cleverness, prolificacy or loneliness were generally feminine; he said there were many exceptions, but he remembered them because they failed to correspond to his rule.

As the student's word lists grow longer tests are given—on only one gender at a time. Students review their noun lists with English meanings and are urged to review only one gender at a sitting. These tests can be very objective, of course, consisting of 80 to 100 English nouns of one gender for which the students are to give the equivalent nouns in the foreign language. A good plan is to combine other parts of speech in these tests giving, for example in the first test about 75 feminine nouns and verbs, which are not likely to be confused. After the first test has been discussed and reviewed in class, a second may well follow four or five days later, consisting of the same number of masculine nouns and adjectives. Somewhat later a third test will be given on neuter nouns and adverbs. Since adjectives and adverbs require close attention to avoid confusion, the students will be motivated to find out what is the distinction and to determine which words may be used either way. If these three tests consist each of the same number of words, the same distribution system may be used in the scoring and there is quite likely to be considerable improvement. The distribution of scores will be discussed after the fourth test, which is next.

All of the foreign nouns used in the three tests are now to be arranged on a mimeograph sheet, probably about 107 of them, occupying three columns, and the students in this test are to designate the gender of all nouns by placing the correct article before each.—In the case of Latin the letters "M," "F," and "N" are to be used.

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The results of this test will show a great difference in the student's ability, some writing perfect or nearly perfect papers, others having nearly half of the articles wrong, but on the whole, the results will be found to be much better than with a group not trained with the preliminary exercises here described.

This method of instruction may not be approved by all authorities, the reason being given that it is better to study words by context than in word

lists. I agree with this view myself and advocate it; the system I have just described is for a review of nouns with meanings and gender. I do not advocate following it during all of the language course, but merely for three weeks or so during a part of the first year to induce students to note gender of nouns more carefully.

If you as teachers wish to try out this method, I would invite you to make this kind of a preliminary test: Simply make out a list of the last 90 to 100 nouns that you have had in class and put mimeographed copies of these before the pupils with instructions to designate the gender of each noun by writing the article before each one. Keep the results of this test and then proceed to follow through with the plan of review that I have just outlined, having the class list nouns on separate sheets of colored paper. After three weeks or so of this, test again and compare results. An improvement of 50% to 100% will probably be shown.

A quick way of assigning the marks equitably is to put down in a vertical column the number of errors made by each student. In a small class such as I have just had they are likely to appear thus, showing marked improvement:

74	74	60	100
Feminine nouns	Masculine Nouns	Neuter Nouns	Nouns
and	and	and	(Test on Gender
Verbs	Adjectives	Adverbs	alone)
3 8 12	2)	0)	2) _A
8}A	4	0	45
12	4 7}A	1	
	7	2}A	8 10 B
15) p	8)	3	10 B
16 B	,	7	,
15 B 16 C 48 50 D	13)	3 7 7	11}C
48)	17	,	•
50{D	18 B	12)	18)
55	21)	15}B	18
	,	19	24}D
74 80 E	32)	-c	24
80 _	33	33)	24
103 E	35 C	37}D	•
111)	36	40)	27}E
132)	44} D	69} E	34)
140}F	•	•	40}F
140	94} E	100} F	42)

For the third test only 60 neuter nouns and adverbs were available, so a proportionately smaller number of errors was allowed to earn the various marks, A, B, C, etc.

On the first three tests, in which the student was required to give the foreign noun, three points were scored against the student for each com-

plete miss, two points for misspelling involving two or more letters and one point, if only one letter was wrong. Thus the total possible errors on the first test was 225; the second test was similar, while on the third the total possible errors was 180. On the last test the number of errors possible was 100.

This work of comparing different classes on similar tests that can be evaluated eventually according to the normal curve will be found very fascinating. The results tabulated above show considerable improvement during the series of four tests and this improvement continues, if the same procedure is repeated. Those who have gotten low scores in the first-series will make every effort to raise their scores. It is advisable to use the same plan of scoring during the next series so that a general improvement is possible with general satisfaction for all concerned. After all, the teacher is as anxious as the pupils to avoid all failures, and this plan of teaching the gender of nouns is submitted to aid other teachers in that worthy objective.

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An Experiment Designed to Measure the Comparative Achievement in Vocabulary and Reading Ability of Second Year Classes in French and Spanish

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(Author's summary.—Evidence is presented to show that students of French using an extensive reading approach made greater progress in the acquisition of reading skill and vocabulary content than students of Spanish using an intensive reading approach.)

Introduction

SINCE the year 1925, modern language teachers have concerned themselves more and more with the use of standardized tests as a means of surveying teaching results. Among the earliest tests to be devised scientifically and administered to large groups were those given under the direction of Ben D. Wood to some 31,000 students in the state of New York. Although these tests came into being as a result of the attempt on the part of the New York State Regents' Examining Board to discover whether the new-type or old-type forms of questions were more satisfactory, they were worked over later and the tests issued as standardized under the name of the Columbia Research Bureau Modern Language Tests. These tests were selected by the members of the Language Department as the ones that seemed best suited for use in the experiment outlined below.

The Problem

The Language Department of Lindblom attempted during the present year to measure the comparative achievement in vocabulary and reading ability of second year classes in French and Spanish. The emphasis in language study, both in French and Spanish, in Lindblom, rests primarily on the development of skill in reading, but the teaching technique used in reaching this common end varies greatly between the two classes. Students of French begin to read earlier and read more widely than do the students of Spanish. In general, the French teachers advocate extensive reading; the Spanish teachers, intensive reading.

A testing program was inaugurated in order to enable the teacher to measure objectively the achievement of her classes. It was hoped that such a program would reveal the following:

Comparison of the level of reading ability and vocabulary content attained by students of French and of Spanish, at the end of the third semester of language study, and again at the end of the fourth semester.

- 2. Measurement of extent of growth in reading skill and vocabulary content in the course of one semester.
- 3. Comparison of the results of these tests with the established norms.

The Technique

After careful study of the situation, members of the teaching staff decided to administer Form A of the test at the end of the 2B semester and Form B at the end of the 2A semester, although no conclusions of any worth could be formulated until the end of the second year, since no comparison of the results with the established norms could be made until that time. The consensus of opinion was, however, that such a procedure would act as an incentive to the student to try to better his record, that it would direct his attention to the desired goal, namely: growth in vocabulary content and in reading skill, and that it would familiarize him with the type of test that he would be expected to undergo.

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	Lindblom Results End of 2B Sem. Form A		End of	m Results 2A Sem. rm B	New York Results End of 2A Semester	
	Mean	St. Dev.	Mean	St. Dev.	Mean	St. Dev.
Part I						
Vocabulary	44	10	57	8	59	11
Part II						
Reading	24	12	50	14	43	12
		(Sp.	anish)			
	Lindblo	m Results	Lindblo	m Results	New Yo	rk Results
	End of	2B Sem.	End of	2A Sem.	End of 2A Semester	
	For	rm A	For	rm B		
Part I						
Vocabulary	49	13	54	14	70	11
Part II						
Reading	28	14	35	13	52	10

Interpretation of the Data

An analysis of the data shows that both groups gained considerably during the period of experimentation. The French group made approximately a 38 per cent gain in vocabulary and a 92 per cent gain in reading, as opposed to a 10 per cent gain in vocabulary and a 25 per cent gain in reading for the Spanish group.

The evidence here presented would seem to indicate that the teaching technique used in the French classes, namely that of early and wide reading, is more productive of success in reading then the intensive reading method favored in the Spanish classes.

Certain Limitations of the Study and Observations Bearing on the Results

The French group, consisting of two classes and some 70 students, was taught throughout the course of the year by one teacher; the Spanish group, consisting of five classes and some 150 students, was taught by five teachers. Of the latter group one class made scores that were comparable to those set by the French students.

Examination of the scores made by individual students showed that while some doubled their scores after a semester's work, others made little or no gain and a few students lost ground. An interesting study could be made of the causes that produced results so contrary to what one would naturally expect. If Forms A and B are of equal difficulty, as they are alleged to be, some progress should ensue as a consequence of a semester's training. It must be left to the class teacher to ascertain the factors that brought forth such divergent results. Excessive absence due to the influenza epidemic which struck the school early in the second semester may account for some of the failure to acquire added skill. Whether this be a just observation or not cannot be determined here, but it is evident that each student presents a case peculiarly his own which merits careful attention.

In justice to the Spanish group, one must also take into consideration the fact that certain skills were not tested in this examination. Earlier in this paper it was stated that the teaching technique in the two languages varies greatly. Although in both languages reading ability is proposed as a major aim, it is unquestionably true that a greater amount of stress is placed upon the acquisition of grammatical principles in Spanish than in French. It is not within the province of this paper to decide whether such a procedure merits praise or rebuke, but it is logical to suppose that had the test included a grammar section, the Spanish group would have rated higher than the French in this phase of the work. Even this statement lies open to criticism for only by actual testing can the facts be obtained. The French students may have acquired inductively through wide reading a more comprehensive knowledge of grammar than the Spanish students (although the author of this report doubts the possibility of such results).

This project of the language department aroused considerable interest and enthusiasm among the teachers and students participating therein. The students have profited by the definite goals set before them. The teachers have food for thoughtful speculation for many months to come, for this self-examining activity may help us to formulate new methods and new aims.

The Importance of Adverbs and Connectives in Teaching Reading

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(Author's summary.—The indispensable connectives that make connected discourse possible are the most difficult words in the foreign vocabulary. They seldom show any cognate relationship to English equivalents, and are seldom thought of aside from the requirements of sentence structure. Something more than haphazard presentation of these words is recommended.)

THE experience of the past few years has demonstrated to the present writer that the simplification of foreign language vocabulary through word count readers and synthetic texts is not in itself the whole answer to the reading question. Simplification was inevitable and is praiseworthy, but difficulties still remain. It is with no little astonishment that one observes in the classroom that the very easiest of reading material, with the new words explained in visible footnotes, still elicits the familiar halting recitation whenever a bit of translation is called for. Detractors of the translation method, of course, would have one believe that translation itself is at fault, and that stoppage and bewilderment are inevitably implied in the effort to transfer thought from one language to another. A careful examination of student difficulties, however, seems to point in another direction.

In most of the classes observed, knowledge of what is loosely called vocabulary is not lacking. That is, the students can recall readily the meanings of nouns, adjectives, and verbs in the day's lesson, whether grammar or reading is being undertaken. This seems to be true even when these words are taken out of their context. The difficulty, then, must lie with another class of words. The real problem, according to the writer's observation, is to provide an adequate knowledge of prepositions, adverbs, and conjunctions. It is these words which point out relationships between the other parts of speech, but despite their indispensability, it is these very words that tend to be neglected by instruction. Current procedure is to introduce adverbs and connectives in the elementary grammar only when they are specifically needed for composition purposes and to assume knowledge of their meaning and use thereafter. In the case of a few very common words such as of, now, and because, this procedure is effective, for by their frequent occurrence the commonest prepositions, adverbs, and conjunctions are thoroughly learned before the end of the text is reached. Unfortunately the same cannot be said for the whole body of indispensable words. Certain prepositions denoting spatial relationships, such as below and outside of, adverbs such as henceforth and thus, conjunctions such as although and since, to name but a few, are not brought to the student's attention in any systematic fashion. In the

case of the conjunctions, the lessons on the subjunctive are the sole excuse for presentation, and that dispensed with no more is said about them.

With the introduction of reading material the teaching of the adverbs and connectives becomes even more haphazard. The student is expected to learn such words as they come, along with nouns, adjectives, and verbs, and no more drill is provided for the adverbs and connectives than for any other word on a given page. Three pages later, when the student stumbles upon a repetition of a preposition, an adverb, or a conjunction, it seems to him totally new and unfamiliar. Thus, a student who remembers, oddly enough, such polysyllabic nouns and adjectives as French écrivisse, Spanish izquierda Italian piroscafo, or German Gelegenheit, despite their total non-relationship to their English equivalents, is likely to be stuck when he comes to French afin que, Italian a meno que, Spanish entonces, or German seitdem. Yet the latter words are more frequent of occurrence, and vastly more important for the comprehension of connected discourse than the words first mentioned. One wonders at this apparent quirk of memory, for although the indispensable adverbs and connectives seldom have any direct cognate relationship with their English equivalents, the same is true for many of the nouns, adjectives, and verbs which are apparently learned without effort. Why this should be so is not easy to determine, but perhaps it is safe to hazard a guess. Evidently unfamiliar polysyllabic combinations denoting nouns, adjectives, and verbs, by reason of their very difficulty and novelty create a neural path of their own. They are aided in this by the fact that they are generally associated in the mind with an English equivalent that has a definite, conceptual meaning. The word left, for example, has genuine spatial meaning and exists in the brain independent of words which it may be called upon to modify. Horse, whatever its foreign equivalent may be, conjures up a "real" visual image and for this reason is capable of separate intellectual existence. One thinks of such words without necessarily placing them in sentences, but if one considers the question of although, almost, alongside, it becomes apparent that even in English these words do not ordinarily possess independent conceptual existence. No one but a grammarian or a language teacher is likely to consider such words apart from their sentence position, and from this it follows that even in his own tongue the student is not accustomed to formal consideration of such words. At most they are for him convenient automatic responses to a given sentence situation, and he is totally unprepared to memorize their equivalents and to consider them as entities. For him they are mere abstractions, in English as well as in the foreign language, and if the teacher does not make a special effort to come to his aid, adverbs and connectives will never be learned properly.

The disastrous results of failure to concentrate on this class of words are commonly seen in the first and second year language course, but they are thrown into even sharper relief in the reading examinations for the A.M.

and Ph.D. degrees. Candidates for these degrees, when reading articles in their technical sphere, seldom have trouble with so-called scientific French and German, for the widespread tendency among scholars to use Latin roots in technical nomenclature renders transliteration into English relatively easy. It is rather on the adverbs and connectives that the graduate reader falls down, and half-knowledge is more serious here than in elementary courses. A dictionary will readily supply meanings of nouns, adjectives, and verbs, but a misinterpretation of adverbs and conjunctions that appear familiar may have lamentable consequences. The student in the laboratory can ill afford to misunderstand exact directions in learned articles which he may be using as a guide in his own research.

Our procedures, then, must reflect some awareness of this phase of vocabulary learning. Drill on the indispensable adverbs and connectives must be provided even if the range frequency of such words does not seem to call for special attention to them. A number of devices may be developed in order to emphasize these words in the reading lesson, such as asking students to underline every preposition, adverb, and conjunction that is encountered. It may even be regarded as defensible to study these words intensively out of context, but whatever scheme is adopted current under-emphasis should he compensated for by increased attention to the problem.

Italian Civilization An Observation; A Suggestion

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(Author's summary.—Since most students studying Italian are primarily interested in its cultural phase, teachers of Italian need to place greater emphasis on civilization. A method of introducing civilization is here given.)

JUST as every man knows that he cannot live on bread alone, so every good teacher of modern foreign languages knows that he cannot teach grammar alone.

Having taught Italian and French for a number of years, and being somewhat familiar with Spanish and German, I realize clearly the importance of civilization in the teaching of modern foreign languages. I realize even more, however, the greater emphasis that needs to be placed on civilization in the teaching of Italian than in the teaching of other modern foreign languages.¹

Let us examine briefly the student who takes a modern foreign language, and his reasons for it.² Granted that there are a great number of students who take a modern foreign language to fulfill a requirement, there are still other reasons that make a student choose one language instead of another. Many students choose Spanish only because they have heard that it is easy. Unfortunately, or perhaps fortunately, they soon find out that they need to work just as hard to master Spanish as they would any other Romanic language. Lately with the importance of Latin-American relations, students elect Spanish because of the opportunities in the commercial field, both in the United States and South America, for persons who know Spanish.

The future scientist, physician, or engineer will choose German on the theory that there exists a great number of scholarly works in his field that are not translated into English and which are very essential for carrying on scientific research.

The student who has a desire to continue with graduate work will, in all probability, choose French, and in many cases also German, in order to acquire a reading knowledge so as to permit him to enter graduate school. In general we can say that in the study of French, German, and Spanish the student is more interested in the practicality of the language than in its cultural phase.

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The student of Italian comes under a special classification. He is not looking forward to a position in South America, nor does he wish to be a

¹ The author has in mind primarily the more important modern foreign languages, that is, French, German, and Spanish.

² Majors in a language are not considered in the remarks that follow.

chemist, a physician, or an engineer. He does not study Italian with a view to graduate work for he cannot enter a graduate school with a reading knowledge of Italian alone. He is not taking it to fulfill a language requirement, for, if he knows no other foreign language, in most cases he will choose one of the more popular of the modern foreign languages. Why, then, does a student choose Italian?

Through my experience in teaching I have found that students who choose Italian come under two general classifications: a. The student of Italian origin who wishes to know the language of his parents, to know more about Italy, its history, its culture, its civilization. b. The American student who has more or less the same desires with one or two obvious exceptions. He may be, for example, more interested in one phase of Italian civilization than in Italian civilization in general. He is the voice student, the music student, the art student, the future archeologist, architect, etc. All his interests in Italian seem to be closely related to the arts. It is due to this very fact that greater emphasis should be placed on civilization in the teaching of Italian than in the teaching of other modern foreign languages.

Granted the necessity of this greater stress on civilization, the method of introducing it effectively and interestingly is not always an easy one. If civilization has any value at all, it should be introduced at the very beginning of the study of the language. Unfortunately one cannot use textbooks written in Italian on Italian civilization at a very early stage,³ nor can one justify the assigning of long works on the subject written in English. Some authors of Italian grammars have solved the problem quite satisfactorily by inserting, at various intervals in the text, cultural essays written in English.⁴ This is an excellent idea and one that should be used by future authors of elementary Italian grammars. The unfortunate thing at the present is that this method has not been attempted in elementary grammars at the college level.⁵

One method of introducing Italian civilization that I have found to be quite satisfactory in beginners' classes is that of assigning magazine articles written in English. The task is not an arduous one. One need only to choose a certain number of worth-while magazines and make a bibliography of all articles which in the estimation of the teacher would be of value to students.

³ There are several good texts written in Italian on Italian civilization: Capocelli, Ginevra, L'Italia nel Passato e Nel Presente, Henry Holt and Co., 1930; Marinoni, A., Vita Italiana, Henry Holt and Co., 1935; Massa, G., Civiltà Italiana, Las Americas Publishing Co., 1940; Wilkins and Marinoni, L'Italia, D. C. Heath and Co., 1933. With the probable exceptions of Vita Italiana and Civiltà Italiana, these texts are suitable for the very end of the firsy year, or the beginning of the second year.

⁴ Sammartino and Russo, Il Primo Libro, the Crispen Company, 1936. This is a good text for the high school beginner.

⁵ In Russo's First Year Italian, D. C. Heath and Co., 1937, there is a good treatment of civilization written in Italian. This text, however, is primarily for high schools.

When the bibliography is once made it should be mimeographed and placed in the hands of each student. When all students have chosen a subject to read, the teacher will then set a date when each student should report on what he has read. Since the report, of necessity, cannot take up a great deal of the period, it should be terse and concise, and should be given orally so as to permit the remaining students to take notes. A brief period for discussion and clarification should be given at the end of the report. In general, one report a week should be sufficient. By the end of the semester each student will be acquainted in a broad way with several phases of Italian civilization and will be well acquainted with the subject or subjects on which he himself has had to report. The class may be checked on this material by the use of an objective test, either a multiple-choice or a true-false type of examination.

This method creates a good spirit in the classroom. Each topic serves to develop thought, interest and appreciation in the student; his learning is not merely factual. Besides, each student feels that he himself is contributing something to make the course more interesting and beneficial.

Below is found an example of this procedure for those who may be interested in trying it. The bibliography is taken from *The National Geographic Magazine*.⁸

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- ⁶ It has been found more satisfactory to keep the bibliography of each magazine separate and to arrange it in alphabetical order according to subject matter.
- ⁷ Consult author's article: "A 'Quiz' on Italian Civilization," Modern Language Journal, Jan., 1940.
- ⁸ Those who wish a more complete bibliography may refer to the Cumulative Index to the National Geographic Magazine, 1889–1936, or the Topical Index to the National Geographic, 1939. The latter has the following divisions: 1. Italy, general; 2. Social Sciences (Social Institutions, Dwellings, Customs, Inhabitants); 3. Natural Sciences (Physical Features, Agriculture); 4. Occupations (Communication and Transportation, Industry and Commerce, Fine Arts and Recreation, History); 5. Regions; 6. Religions.

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the nic, stiSardinia: a. The Island of Sardinia and Its People. Traces of many civilizations to be found in the speech, customs, and costumes of this picturesque land. 43: 1-75, January, 1923. Colored illustrations. In this volume there is also an interesting series of illustrations entitled: Daily Life in Calabria, pp. 181-193.

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Sicily: a. Island of Vivid Beauty and Crumbling Glory. 52: 432-449, October, 1927. Colored illustrations.

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Reporting a Test

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(Author's summary.—Description of a test of French composition, designed for the lower and intermediate levels, which can be scored objectively, and which, at the institution where it was developed, yields comparable results from year to year.)

THIS paper discusses the development at the University of Chicago of a type of French composition test which has in practice yielded remarkably good results as a measuring instrument and has proven very stable, i.e., gives comparable scores from year to year.

The test was developed as a part of the comprehensive examination in French 104-105-106, the sequence in Intermediate French given in the College of the University of Chicago. The College, as the term is used at the University of Chicago, includes the years corresponding to the freshman and sophomore years of the traditional four-year program. The prerequisites for admission to French 104-105-106 are two units of high school French or the successful completion of French 101-102-103, the sequence in Elementary French. Students in the College, as contrasted with more advanced students who desire to offer French 104-105-106 as an elective in a field related to their major field, may gain credit for the sequence only by passing the comprehensive examination given at the end of the Spring Quarter. The great majority of students in the course are College students. Since these students must stand or fall solely on the basis of the comprehensive examination, the staff of the course and the examiner attempt, in every possible way, to make the examination as valid, as reliable, and as discriminating as they can. In the attempt to secure greater reliability, objective questions, or questions which can be scored with high objectivity, have been devised.

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The Announcement of the College for 1940-41 describes French 104-105-106 thus: "The primary objective of the second-year sequence is the standardization of the language abilities. To that end there is continuous training in formal and informal written and oral expression, aural comprehension and the accurate determination of the value of the printed word. Approximately twenty-five hundred pages are read, with reports, following individual programs." This statement is a fair description of the course as given in the preceding four years, the period covered by this investigation. The type of test discussed in the present connection was intended to measure the outcomes of training in written expression. It was first used experimentally in the comprehensive examination of June, 1934. In substantially

¹ See Ernest Haden and John M. Stalnaker, "A New Type of Comprehensive Foreign Language Test," The Modern Language Journal, Vol. XIX, No. 2 (November, 1934), 81-92.

its present form, it was included as a part of the 1935 examination, and retained in the following years with minor changes in the physical presentation.

The essential features of this type of test are as follows: a French passage is chosen which, in the judgment of the staff and the examiner, contains material suitable for testing at the level of the course, from the point of view of both vocabulary and syntax. It should be emphasized that the choice of an appropriate passage is extremely important, if the test is to yield maximal results. This passage is then translated into good English. The next step is to go through the French text and delete certain words and phrases. The corresponding parts of the English translation are underlined and numbered to agree with the numbers replacing the omitted words and phrases in the French passage. The student is required to complete the French passage in accordance with the English translation. He is guided in this task by the numbers and the underlining.

A sample taken from the June, 1939, examination will give a better idea of the physical arrangement of the test than a lengthy explanation (see following page).

A casual inspection of the sample suffices to reveal that this test form makes possible the use of a great variety of items, both as to content and as to length. The items may all be classified under one heading: usage, with subclassification under active vocabulary (including idioms) and grammar (including syntax). By the proper choice of items tested, it is possible to vary at will both the level of difficulty and the proportion of vocabulary items and grammar items. In this way, validity with reference to specific objectives and content of a given course of study may be built into the test. For instance, in French 104-105-106 at the University of Chicago, a common practice has been to restrict items used in this test to the 2,500 words of highest frequency in the Vander Beke French Word Book.2 A similar procedure may be followed with respect to idioms, by using the Cheydleur French Idiom List. Note that both upper and lower limits may be adopted. At present, grammar items must be validated on the basis of textbooks used and the subjective judgment of the instructing staff. When the French Syntax Count, begun under the direction of the late Professor Coleman, and now proceeding under the direction of Professor Keniston, is finally available, we shall have an objective criterion of difficulty for French syntactical constructions. In Spanish, this invaluable aid has already been published.4

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Theoretically, the most discriminating type of item for use in an achievement examination is one answered correctly by 50% of the group taking the

² George E. Vander Beke, French Word Book (New York: Macmillan, 1929).

³ Frederic D. Cheydleur, French Idiom List, Based on a Running Count of 1,183,000 Words (New York: Macmillan. 1929).

Hayward Keniston, Spanish Syntax List (New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1937).

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Translation of French Text on Opposite Page

The old marquis de la Tour-Sannel, (1) eighty-two. years old, arose and came (2) to lesn against the mantelpiece. He said (3) in his (4) somewhat trembling voice:

#[5] 1, 100, hnow a strange thing, so strange [5] that
it has been the obsession of my life. [7] it is now fiftysix years [8] since this adventure [9] happened to me, and
[10] a month dossn't go by [11] without my seeling it again
in a dream. [12] There has resained to me from that day
a mark, an imprint of fear, do you understand me? Yes,
[13] I underwent herrible fright, [14] for ten minutes,
[15] in such a way that since that hour [15] a kind of.
constant terror [17] has remained [18] in my soul.
[19] Unerpected noises [20] make me start; [21] objects
[22] that I make out [23] poorly in [24] the evening shadow
give me [25] a mad desire [26] to run ammy. Finally, I'm

**Marked (E7) at might.

**Oh! (E8) I shouldn't have admitted (E8) that (E0) before having arrived at my (E1) present age. Now I can say (E2) everything. It is parmitted (E8) not to be brave before imaginary dangers, when (E8) you are elabty-two. Before real dangers,

(31)

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(31). Maintenant je peux (32) dire. Il set permis (33) devant les dangers imagi-

naires, (34). Devant les dangers véri-

tables, (35), Mesdames.

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Certain words and phrases have been omitted from the following French pessage, and a number has been substituted for each omitted word or phrase. In each numbered space at the right, write in FRENCH the appropriate word or phrase. Be sure that your translation fits the French context. An English translation of the pessage is given on the page opposite; the translation of sach the french and translation of sach that french and corresponds to the number in the French passage for east in reference. Note that there is not always exact correspondence in the French and the English. The old marquis uses the conversational, that is, informal, sayle, until he begins to call his scorp, which is in <u>literant</u> style.

(1)	(2)	(3)	(2)	(9)	(8)	(01)	(21)	(14)	(16)	(18)	(20)	(22)	(24)	(26)	(38)
Le vieux marquis de la Tour-Samuel (1),	se leve et vint (2) la cheminée. Il dit	(3) sa voix (4):	(5) sais une chose étrange, telle-	ment étrange (6) a été l'obsession de	me vie. (7) maintenant cinquante-six ans	(8) cette aventure (9), et (10) (11)	en reve. (12) de ce jour-là une marque,	une empreinte de peur, me comprener-vous?	Out, (13) 1'horrible épouvante, (14),	(15) que depuis cette heure (16) terreur	constante (17) (18). (19) (20); (21)	(22) je distingus (23) dens (24) me	donnent (25) (26). J'at peur (27), enfin-		Oh1 (28) (29) (30) & mon &g*

examination.⁵ In practice, we almost never find a test containing even a majority of items of this type, except in the case of standardized tests which have been refined by statistical procedures; and even then, perhaps only with reference to the group on which the test was standardized. The classroom teacher interested in using the kind of test herein discussed would obviously not have the time to go through the various steps required to develop a test composed largely of the most discriminating items. A fair approximation can, however, be achieved by bearing in mind that items that will be passed by practically all the group of students, or by almost none, have very little value for discrimination. They might be called "dead wood." The experienced teacher and his colleagues can, by subjective judgment, identify many such unprofitable items. Repeated use of a given test form and inspection of the results (not necessarily involving a formal item analysis, although that is always desirable when practicable), will tend to bring the teacher's subjective judgment of the worth of an item closer to an objective evaluation. It goes without saying that the value of an item as regards discrimination varies with the level of instruction and the content and method of the course, and should always be estimated in terms of these latter. To take a hypothetical example, in one school an item involving the agreement of the past participle of an intransitive verb conjugated with être might be highly discriminating, whereas in a school in a neighboring town, using a different course of study and a different method, the students might have received so much drill on this particular point that an item involving it would be passed by practically every student.

If the passage chosen, although otherwise desirable, is judged to lack an adequate number of instances of a particular construction considered important by the instructing staff, it is frequently possible to add items involving this construction by making slight changes in the French passage. It may not even be necessary to change the English translation at all, after . such revision has taken place. The vocabulary items can be controlled in in like manner. Table I shows the principal results of a statistical analysis of the different forms of this test used in the comprehensive examinations in French 104-105-106 at the University of Chicago during the four-year

period 1937-1940 inclusive.

We note that the mean score in all four years was in the general neighborhood of 50% of the possible number of points in the test. This is equivalent to saying that the average item was answered correctly by about 50% of the group taking the examination. In 1940, a few items were purposely included which seemed a priori rather easy for the group tested, in order to test the effectiveness of such a priori judgment. These items were answered correctly by most of the students, and are reflected in the higher mean score for the 1940 test.

Thelma Gwinn Thurstone, "The Difficulty of a Test and Its Diagnostic Value," The Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol. XXIII, No. 5 (May, 1932), 335-343.

The standard deviation is a measure of spread of scores, in other words, of dispersal from the mean. In a normal distribution, two-thirds of the cases will fall within one standard deviation above or below the mean. In each of the four forms of the test, the standard deviation was large enough so that the students' scores were well spread out, thereby facilitating classification of the students in rank order of merit. The differences in size of the standard deviation from one year to another are no greater than differences often found in administering the same test to two different groups of students, one slightly more homogeneous than the other. The spread of students' scores on this test is thus quite comparable from year to year.

The reliability coefficient is a measure of the consistency with which an examination measures whatever it does measure. An examination measuring with perfect consistency has a reliability coefficient of 1.00; an examination

TABLE I

Composition Test—French 104-105-106

	1937	1938	1939	1940
No. of items	112	100	100	100
No. of points	112	100	100	100
No. of points in comprehensive examination	545	495	485	485
Mean	52.09	51.75	45.96	54.52
Standard deviation	17.80	15.95	14.86	13.98
Reliability	.94	.94	.92	.91
Standard error of measurement	4.36	3.91	4.20	4.19
Correlation with entire comprehensive				
examination	.92	.91	.88	.90
No. of cases	44	60	78	52

measuring with absolutely no consistency, one of 0. The reliability of a test is in part a function of the length, since a longer test allows more effective sampling. For a test of 100 items, a reliability of .90 is considered good. The lowest reliability coefficient computed for the four-year period was .91 for the 1940 form; the highest, .94 for the 1938 form (this is relatively better than .94 for the 1937 form, since the latter contained twelve more items).

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The standard error of measurement is a number such that the chances are two out of three that the true score for a given individual (i.e., the exact measure of his real ability in the task assigned) will lie within that number above or below his obtained score. The standard error of measurement, for a given standard deviation, decreases as the reliability increases. In none of the four years is the standard error of measurement as large as one-tenth of the mean score, and in none is it as large as one-third of the standard deviation. These values are satisfactorily low. They indicate that chance error in measurement has been kept within reasonable limits. Note

that the difference between the highest and the lowest standard errors of measurement here reported is only .45. To illustrate the meaning of this slight difference between the two extremes, let us assume that a student in 1937 and a student in 1938 each have a score of 40.00. The chances are two out of three that the true score of the 1937 student lies between 35.64 and 44.36, and that the true score of the 1938 student lies between 36.09 and 43.91.

In only one year, 1939, does the correlation of students' scores on the composition test with their scores on the entire comprehensive fall below .90. The 1939 distribution includes one case (that of a student not registered for the course) which is so unlike the other cases in the group that it lowers the correlation by at least .01. It is customary to regard the correlation of a subtest with the entire examination as spuriously high, since the subtest is being correlated with a test of which it forms a part. In each of the four years, however, the composition test represents only about onefifth of the total number of points in the entire comprehensive examination, and yet the correlation of this part with the entire comprehensive examination remains uniformly high, although a good part of the remaining material in the comprehensive examination has changed in character from year to year. This phenomenon, taken in connection with the relatively constant mean, standard deviation, reliability, and standard error of measurement, leads to the conclusion that under the conditions prevailing in French 104-105-106 at the University of Chicago this composition test represents a particularly stable type of measuring instrument.

The scoring of this test can be made very objective. At the time the test is constructed, as complete a key as possible is prepared. This facilitates the work of the scorer, who must, however, be competent in the language. The scoring cannot be entrusted to clerks. Whenever the scorer meets a correct answer not included in the key, he adds it to the key. Even with the necessity for consideration of such answers, the scoring is very rapid. In syntactical items, minor errors in spelling and mistakes in accents are disregarded, provided that the student uses correctly the construction on which the item hinges. The scoring becomes nearly as objective as that of a multiple-choice test.

Everyone must agree that the best method of testing French composition would be to require the student to write a free composition in French, if such tests could be scored reliably. Unfortunately, this is extremely difficult. In the few instances where moderate success has been achieved, the process is very time-consuming, and involves essentially using the services of a jury of experts. Most teachers would probably agree that, at least at the lower and intermediate levels, the two elements which would assume the greatest importance in their judgment of a free composition in French are active vocabulary (including idioms) and grammar (including syntax).

This type of test is capable of measuring students' achievement in these two elements reliably and objectively. The writer feels that at the lower and intermediate levels it is wiser to use a test which can do this than to run the risk of unreliable measurement which use of free composition entails.

The results of the statistical analysis shown in Table I can be accepted unquestionably only for French 104-105-106 at the University of Chicago. There is no guarantee, but there is a strong presumption, that a test of this kind, constructed elsewhere with equal care, and with due attention to the objectives, content and method of the course of study, would yield equally favorable results. The technique could certainly be applied to Spanish and Italian as well as to French; the sentence structure of German might prevent the technique from being as effective in that language as in the Romance languages.

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Correspondence

To the Editor of the Modern Language Journal:

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May I offer a comment on Pauline Morton-Finney's article in the December, 1941, Journal on "Latin, A Basis for French and Spanish Study." Miss Morton-Finney's problem, as she herself states (page 873) is "How do the marks of high-school pupils who have had one year of Latin prior to their study of French or Spanish compare with the marks of pupils who have taken French or Spanish with no prior instruction in Latin?" Her results are what any of us with experience in teaching French or Spanish would have anticipated—namely, that students with some previous preparation in Latin as a general rule do make better progress in French or Spanish, than those who have had no Latin. This is all to the good, of course. But Miss Morton-Finney goes a great deal further when she states in her "Conclusions" (p. 878) that the "findings" of her study are "in disagreement with the opinions of Benjamin Franklin, Elliott, and Wilkins mentioned above." The opinions of Benjamin Franklin, A. Marshall Elliott, and Lawrence A. Wilkins (that Latin should follow, rather than precede, the study of a Neo-Latin or Romance language) are also referred to (page 876) as "but opinions, and not in agreement with the findings of the present study...."

It is more than a little difficult to understand Miss Morton-Finney's reasoning, inasmuch as her investigation was directed to the question "Does previous study of Latin conduce to better marks in French or Spanish?" and not at all to the question "Does previous study of French, Spanish

or Italian conduce to better marks in Latin?"

This last question has not been investigated by Miss Morton-Finney, nor as far as I know, in any properly controlled experiment by anyone else. I fail to see how Miss Morton-Finney's "findings," in fact, have any bearing on the particular question at all. Her results simply bear out something of which many of us, out of our own experience, were already perfectly aware. Before Franklin, or Elliott, or Wilkins (or their opinions on this subject) can be considered "discredited," to use one of Miss Morton-Finney's words, much more experimentation is necessary. In addition to studying (1) the extent to which previous study of Latin facilitates the study of French or Spanish, we must study (2) the extent to which previous study of a Romance language facilitates the study of Latin, and then (3) by a controlled experiment, study the question as to whether greater advantage to the pupil results from either one of these procedures as compared to the other.

Just how this experimentation could be set up, I am not prepared to say; but until Franklin's opinions and those of Elliott and Wilkins are so tested, they cannot be "discredited." Certainly Miss Morton-Finney's "findings" throw no particular light on the special phase of the problem that Franklin, Elliott, and Wilkins had in mind. All she has shown is that previous study of Latin helps the student of French or Spanish. She has not studied, or shown, whether previous study of French or Spanish or Italian helps the student of Latin, as Franklin believed, and to what extent, and her "findings" are obviously valueless in this respect. In other words, her

ideas on this phase of the problem are "but opinions," also, and she should not feel hurt, or "discredited," if many people still maintain that Franklin's opinions, until proved to be unfounded, are as good or even better than

Miss Morton-Finney's.

The question "Latin first, and then French or Spanish or Italian vs. French or Spanish or Italian first, and then Latin," seems to me to be still very much an open question. I believe I said something like this in my article in School and Society for January 9, 1926, to which Miss Morton-Finney refers.

Very truly yours, HENRY GRATTAN DOYLE

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The George Washington University, Washington, D. C.

To the Editor of the Modern Language Journal:

Your ammunition leader in the January Modern Language Journal, pages 3-5, is enheartening. It is high time to call a halt on error and send truth ahead. You have done this with a virility and clarity that would have pleased your late great master, Calvin Thomas. But he would have balked at the main thesis in your translation paragraph. You claim the translations turned out in this country do not deserve more than the general grade of C; you doubt too whether the republic as a whole can be propped up by such inadequate work. You quote Professor Morison as saying that he feels "we" have had only one high grade translation, the King James Version of the Bible.

I have myself translated, in addition to casual articles, 6 volumes from German, 2 from Danish, 1 from French, 1 from Norwegian. As to divergent views—one of these translations was reviewed on a Saturday, in a New York publication, by a reviewer who is a poet of renown, a general writer of distinction. The review led off with congratulations for the author on having procured the service of so competent a translator. There followed words of studied praise of the work. On the following Sunday, it was reviewed in another New York publication. The reviewer condemned the work from stern to prow and closed with this sentence: "The translation is wooden

and literal."

As to the King James affair, bear in mind: It is not officially known as a "translation"; it is rather a "version." Between the two there is a colossal difference. As to being faithful to the meaning, no biblical scholar (I hardly feel Professor Morison would call himself one) has ever said that any group of scholars can get at the precise meaning of the Bible in the original. There are admittedly some very poor translations in our libraries. The worst that ever came to my own notice is that of Freytag's "Technik des Dramas." Who did it I no longer recall, if I ever knew. I know only that it is bad, and that it came out about the time I was planning to go in for German as a graduate student.

Whether a translation is unsatisfactory or not depends somewhat on the extent of our familiarity with the original. Translations of "Faust" pain me. Take that one line which commentators seem to have overlooked: "Mit rechten Leuten wird man was." Fix that in one's mind, and a translation sounds blasphemous. I have just gone through the translation in Danish of Hawthorne's "Scarlet Letter"—Det flammende Bogstav. I en-

joyed it immensely for two reasons: I found what I was looking for, and

I have never read the "Scarlet Letter" in English.

But here is the point. Let whoever wants to learn the real thing about translating buy "A German-English Technical and Scientific Dictionary," by A. Webel. London: George Routledge & Sons. 1937 (2nd ed.) pages x+887. Webel and his colleagues spent twenty-two years compiling it. It was first printed in 1930, then revised and enlarged. It contains a numerical code.

Webel says so "many differences in opinion exist among authorities" that his lexicon can be regarded as only "approximate," and that to "advise upon the way to be taken is impossible." He gives fifteen different translations of "viel" by way of proving his point and adds, these "are a

few" of the possible renderings.

He translates "weiss Metal" "Babbitt metal." This is worth only a C. He gives twelve meanings of "übersetzen" but omits "transfer." He fills nearly nine of his massive columns with Eisen-compounds, but omits "Eisenseife." The corresponding term in Danish is Jernsaebe, which I paid money recently to have translated as simply "iron soap." He renders "sehr wenig löslich" by "very difficultly soluble." And this bulky book of inescapable erudition was brought out under British auspices and for the benefit of English-speaking peoples anywhere:

But it rates at least an A-, for it was a stupendous undertaking. Trans-

lating always is.

ALLEN W. PORTERFIELD

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Addendum horribile:

I translated, a spell back, a monograph for a publisher who accepted the manuscript, read it, lauded it with warmth, and paid me. Later, about ready to go to press, he said it contained "thousands of mistakes." Said I: "Since there were only 34,000 words in all, I must have translated the wrong thing."—A.W.P.

To the Editor of the Modern Language Journal:

In the December 1941 issue of the Journal I read two statements referring to the pamphlet What the High Schools Ought to Teach, both with the interpretation "that the Special Committee proposes to replace specific foreign languages now taught on the senior high school level with a general language course on the same level." I note also that Mr. Milwitsky heads a continuing committee to study this pamphlet (along with other materials)

and make recommendations.

You will remember that my review of this pamphlet and my article on "Time Allotments," which you were kind enough to publish in the May issue, attempted to interpret the pamphlet criticisms as a too-pessimistic view of our worst points, directed mainly at "general education" which usually centers at the ninth grade level; that the general language proposal queried the practicality of an alternate offering at the orientation stage of education; that no statement was made about substitution or replacement of the elective foreign language courses always to remain available. I sent reprints of the article and review to a number of educationists and, as a delegate for the American Association of Teachers of French at the 1941

annual meeting of the American Council on Education, orally queried Dr. Floyd Reeves of the American Youth Commission, which body had

sponsored the committee and published the pamphlet.

For the information of teachers concerned and as a contribution to Mr. Milwitsky's investigations I offer below, with the consent of the writers, the query and the response from Dr. Reeves and a letter I received. Many people who resented the absence of subject-matter representatives from the committee making such widespread curricular recommendations may not have read in the Preface of the pamphlet that the educationists had at hand reports from the various subject areas but found them too conflicting to serve as safe guides. Any realist would admit that ten educationists plus ten subject-matter teachers would have published nothing: they would still be conferring to date. It was not generally known by classroom teachers that just such a group of subject-matter people had been working for a year or more on curricular recommendations. Their report, The Subject Fields in General Education (D. Appleton-Century Co., 35 W. 32d Street, New York City, \$1.50) should be read in toto, not just Chapter V on the Modern Foreign Languages, and compared with the spirit of the pamphlet in question. If there is some harmony in the spirit of the two documents, it should not be too hard to reconcile differences of detail.

JAMES B. THARP

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Ohio State University, March 30, 1942

> Excerpt from Transcript of Proceedings of 1941 Annual Meeting of American Council on Education May 2—Mayflower Hotel, Washington, D. C.¹

> > Discussion following afternoon papers:

Mr. James B. Tharp (American Association of Teachers of French): With respect to your ideas on the booklet What the High Schools Ought to Teach, Dr. Reeves, I have a question of interpretation. When you come to the discussion of the subject matters, a number of subject matter groups have felt that you would discard them and supplement with work of a general nature. I do not read that in the pamphlet, but I wish you would explain how you do expect that at the early state of general education there would be a certain type of work and where you would, if at all, have the so-called subject matter.

DR. REEVES: Of course, I had nothing to do with the writing of that document by those eminent educators. I have had come over my desk a very large number of letters and resolutions of various kinds, many of them commending the report in highest terms, but two or three groups are damning the report in the highest terms in which any report could be damned, particularly the language people. Both the modern language folks and the ancient language folks felt that this group of ten educators, in considering the problem, left no place in the picture for languages and not much place for English.

As I read the report, I do not believe that is what was intended. I think they were talking primarily about a group of youth whose need the schools are not now meeting at all. Some of those people are in school and some are not in school. As I interpret that, they were not trying to do away with that part of our high school program that deals with preparation for college. I

¹ By courtesy of the Master Reporting Co., Inc., National Press Bldg. Washington, D. C.

think they just were talking about the other group. That is my interpretation. Perhaps two or three of the co-authors of that volume who are in this room may wish to comment on it.

CHAIRMAN JOHNSON: Any further comments on that point or any other? (There was no further comment on this point.)

July 15, 1941

Dear Professor Tharp:

I have read with interest your article in the Modern Language Journal of May and also your review of the pamphlet entitled What the High Schools

Ought to Teach.

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I think the main difficulty with the language people is that they do not draw a sharp distinction between required courses and elective courses. They seem to be anxious to require foreign languages of all pupils. When they make this kind of a demand they get into very acute competition with the other subjects in the curriculum. A required subject can justify itself only when it makes a contribution to the needs of all the pupils in the school. There are at the present time in American high schools and colleges a great many young people who would profit more by pursuing courses in the technical arts or sciences than they can possibly profit by studying foreign languages. Furthermore, the length of time which foreign language teachers insist upon having before they can guarantee that a learner will really master the language is so great that the competition with the other subjects becomes even more intense. When a foreign language teacher asks for six units in a high school and junior college course he is making a demand which will certainly be met with opposition by teachers in other fields. The whole difficulty could be in some measure cured if the foreign language people would think of their subjects as specialties rather than parts of a general-education curriculum. Registration in the foreign languages would then represent a special interest on the part of those pupils who really need these languages in their later careers. These careers would for the most part be professional careers. The foreign language people would secure enough students in their classes to justify the maintenance of courses. They would not have the numerical advantages that come from requirements imposed upon students who have really very little use for languages other than their own vernacular.

I am sure that you are right when you say that the pamphlet on What the High Schools Ought to Teach does not single out the foreign languages for special attack. There is nothing in that pamphlet which criticizes foreign language teaching more vigorously than this teaching has been attacked by specialists in the foreign language field. That pamphlet is a plea for general education and it emphasizes the subjects which can legitimately be thought of as needed by all of the pupils. It leaves ample margin for elective studies. As said earlier, the classification of foreign languages as elective subjects would take them entirely out of competition with the required subjects and would, I think, greatly relieve the present situation. In recent years the foreign languages have been artificially supported by requirements

which are coming to be illegitimate and intolerant requirements.

Very sincerely yours, CHARLES H. JUDD

[Editor's note: In connection with this communication, attention should be drawn again to the article "Education in Peril" by V. A. McCrossen in our December, 1941 issue.]

Meetings of Associations

ASSOCIATION OF MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHERS, MIDDLE STATES AND MARYLAND

THE ASSOCIATION of Modern Language Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland held its annual meeting in conjunction with that of the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools at Haddon Hall, Atlantic City, on November 22, 1941, with the President, Mrs. Ronald Murphy, presiding.

The following papers were presented:

- El paso de la epopeya al Romancero entre los siglos XIV y XV.¹ Américo Castro, Princeton University.
- 2. L'Actualité du 17° siècle. H. Carrington Lancaster, Johns Hopkins University.

Dr. Doyle said that Dr. Beardsley has finished organizing state committees for foreign languages. In each case that Dr. Doyle has met members of the state committees he has found them enthusiastic and filled with plans. There is a fine feeling of unity and harmony among them. Dr. Doyle expressed the opinion that an effort will be made to counteract the wave of antipathy to German and French, and that we shall come through the present crisis all right if we work together. He stated also that he was much encouraged to find the increase in Spanish greater than the loss in other languages.

The following officers were elected for the year 1941-1942: President: Edwin C. Byam, University of Delaware, Delaware.

- 1. Sister M. Irene Buckley, Academy of the Sacred Heart, D. C.
- 2. Albert W. Holzmann, Rutgers University, New Jersey.
- Richard P. Cutler, William Penn Charter School, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
 Secretary-Treasurer: Gladys M. Dorsey, Eastern High School, Baltimore, Maryland.
 Representative to Federation: Wilfred A. Beardsley, Goucher College, Baltimore, Maryland.
 Respectfully submitted,

GLADYS M. DORSEY Secretary. I

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PACIFIC COAST FEDERATION OF MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATIONS

THE ANNUAL meeting for 1941 was held November 22nd on the campus of Stanford University. During the business session the executive committee for the year 1942 was elected as follows:

William L. Schwartz, Stanford University, president.

Howard L. Nostrand, University of Washington, vice-president.

Arthur S. Wiley, Pasadena Junior College, secretary-treasurer.

Edward F. Meylan, University of California, delegate to the National Federation.

The program that followed was sponsored jointly by the Pacific Coast Federation and the Modern Language Association of Northern and Central California. It consisted of a panel discussion on the topic The effect of the war upon the teaching of modern languages. The first

¹ Extract from "Lo Hispánico y el Erasmisma" published in the Revista de Filologia Hispánica, Buenos Aires, 1941-1942.

² To be published later.

speaker, Professor Fitz-Gerald, University of Arizona, attributed a great deal of the present decline in enrollment to a long series of attacks that antedates the war. As an example, he cited the latest outburst against the value of foreign language study, Professor Sisson's article in School and Society, November 1, 1941. The other participants, Mr. Meyer Krakowski of the Los Angeles City College, Miss Gladys Metcalf of Lowell High School, San Francisco, and Professor Howard Lee Nostrand of the University of Washington, agreed with Professor Fitz-Gerald's contention that the war merely accelerated an already marked decline.

Following are the summaries of these papers, as prepared by the authors:

Mr. Krakowski:

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The remarks which follow are based on replies to questionnaires from sixty-four schools in Southern California, including eight Junior High Schools, thirty-nine Senior High Schools, nine Junior Colleges, and eight Colleges and Universities. The heads of the foreign language departments of these schools were asked to give figures of the total enrollment of students in their schools and of the enrollment in foreign languages, to state what were the effects of the enrollment on the teaching personnel, what their schools were doing to encourage the study of foreign languages, and what could and should be done to encourage foreign language study. There is sufficient information available to show the present trends, at least in Southern California. The study covered the period of Spring, 1939, to the Fall of 1941, inclusive.

Of the eight Junior High Schools only five have been offering French,—there was about a fifty per cent drop in the enrollment. Only one school offered German and dropped it two years ago. Spanish has been offered in all of the schools, gaining a large percentage of students in at least two of the schools.

Only three of the thirty-nine Senior High Schools offered no French, six dropped it, and in the remaining thirty schools there was an appreciable drop in the enrollment. German was dropped in five schools, and is at present being taught in only thirteen of these schools, where it has been on the decline. Spanish has been taught in all of these schools and has gained greatly in the number of students. There was an appreciable increase in enrollment of Spanish even where the general enrollment in the schools was smaller than in previous years.

In the Junior Colleges, Colleges, and universities the situation is different. In none of the schools was either French or German dropped from the curriculum, although both languages suffered greatly in enrollment. There was an increase in the enrollment of Spanish in several schools. Portuguese has been recently introduced into three of these institutions.

The changes in the enrollment have caused some changes in the personnel, resulting merely in shifting of teachers from French or German, as the case may be, to Spanish. Few teachers lost their positions.

Many of the schools are very active in popularizing foreign languages by means of talks before student assemblies at the time of registration on the value of foreign language study, by the use of films, assembly programs, exhibits, leactures. The Foreign Language Club or the Class in Latin American Culture often play an important part in these activities.

Many teachers of foreign language have been aware of recent changes in the field of education and have endeavored to adjust their work accordingly. This has been somewhat easier in the teaching of Spanish because of a favorable public opinion towards Latin American countries. While the socio-cultural aspect of language teaching has been emphasized, many of our teachers have still been insisting on maintaining high standards.

The drop in the enrollment of foreign languages did not begin with the present crisis. Along with other humanities foreign languages have been crowded out by subjects of a vocational character. People with vision will see in this movement a great danger. Teachers of modern languages should unite with teachers of other humanities and enlightened school administrators with a strong determination for action, in order to save for posterity the permanent values of our civilization.

Miss Gladys Metcalf:

From comparisons of enrollment figures in foreign languages in a few cities in 1939, 1940, 1941, one must conclude that French and German and in some schools Italian have lost numbers, Latin remains about static, Spanish has gained, although not in proportion to the decrease in French and German, and Portuguese is being introduced in some schools. Undoubtedly one strong factor in the decrease in enrollment is traceable to the war. But one must not take the figures at their face value. For example, in Oakland junior high schools the total language enrollment dropped from 32% in 1939 to 19.5% (of total school enrollment) in 1940. The reason is that in that year foreign language study was removed from the curriculum for the eighth grade and given only in the ninth. In 1941 it dropped to 17%, which was probably due to unpopularity caused by war conditions.

In the San Francisco, the decrease from 1939 to 1941 in total language enrollment in senior high schools was about 1000. Probably the decline in birth rate and the emphasis upon vocational training are somewhat responsible also. In the junior high schools Italian has not suffered at all, but in the senior high enrollment has decreased as it has in French and German. In my opinion there are two explanations for this: 1. A large percentage of the students in Italian are of Italian extraction. 2. While in junior high the pupils are still guided by parental

wishes.

From this evidence, entirely inadequate though it is, I conclude that the trend is toward reduced enrollment in most foreign language classes. This is doubtless due in large part to the war, but decrease in general high school enrollment, increased emphasis on vocational education, and open antagonism of administrators are vitally important also.

As foreign language teachers, we must find ways to offset such influences. I suggest two:

1. Analyze our subject, its value and its outcomes in student development. 2. When we know what we can honestly offer, advertise our subject. Through talks and programs presented before parents' groups—such as P.T.A. and service clubs—we should demonstrate the values and attractiveness of our subject. Recognizing that the adolescent is swayed by public opinion, we should combat his instinctive shunning of what he thinks is an unpopular subject by showing him through assembly programs and realia that the study of foreign language is both pleasant and worthwhile.

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Professor Nostrand:

The decline of foreign-language enrollments in the secondary and higher institutions of the State of Washington will be analyzed in an article by Professor C. C. D. Vail, based on surveys made in 1925, 1939, and 1941, to appear in the German Quarterly early in 1942. This decline is of national interest because the northwest exhibits cultural ideals and educational theories typical of the nation as a whole, without the restraining influence of cultural and educational conservatism and old-world orientation. (Washington enrolled 47% of the foreign-language students in the seven northwest states, according to C. A. Wheeler's report, in 1925.)

The most generally significant figures are the proportions of total enrollment, summarized,

as far as available, in the following tables:

Proportion of total public secondary-school enrollment registered in

	French	Spanish	German	Fr., Sp., Ger.	Latin
1925	9.3%	12.4%	0.5%	22.2%	14.0%
1939	6.0	03.9	2.2	12.4	07.6

Proportion of total enrollment of private colleges and universities registered in

	French	Spanish	German	Fr., Sp., Ger.	Latin
1925	37.1%	13.4%	07.4%	57.9%	(not recorded)
1939	11.7	03.7	11.8	27.2	07.3%

Proportion of total enrollment in University of Washington enrolled in

(Aut. Qtr.)	French	Spanish	German	Fr., Sp., Ger.	Latin
1924	12.6%	09.6%	02.9%	25.045%	07.7%
1939	07.4	03.2	05.3	15.803	00.9
1941	04.3	05.9	03.5	13.696	00.3

This much of the figures shows that the decline is a large-scale, steady trend and not the effect of events since 1939. The situation calls for fresh initiative on the part of language departments, not in channels suggested by the emergency alone but in all their functions and relationships. If the home instance may be cited, the Romance Department at Washington has grouped these channels for initiative under seven committees, whose activities can only be suggested in this résumé:

- 1. Courses and enrollment. (Individualization in lower division, based on a study of students' major and minor interests; "prepared positions" for the temporary upper-division retrenchments.)
- 2. Departmental clubs and advisement of majors. (Major requirements are based on a syllabus of readings, affording a proficiency requirement for graduation and necessitating sustained acquaintance with adviser. A Romance group of incoming freshmen is to be formed next "freshman week.")
- 3. Graduate students and conditions for research. (The alertness and reputation of the department in scholarship affects undergraduate enrollment.)
 - 4. Library and budget. (To weigh and compare the budgetary demands of all committees.)
- 5. Public relations and adult education. (To combat misconceptions of the values of foreign-language study, and to take part in adult education for post-war planning.)
- 6. Relations with secondary schools and with the campus. (French and Spanish movies at twenty cents admission; talks to high school groups—exchange lectures in high schools and college have been proposed; re-examination of teacher training in the interest of general education; improved articulation of high school and college.)
- War and reconstruction. (Deferment recommendations; civilian defense plans; cooperation with national coordinating committees to assist in cultural and Romanic aspects of
 preparation for post-war activities.)

Committees are no panacea, granted. But it is plausible that such an organization of initiative, in enough colleges and secondary schools, might entitle language study and language personnel to become more of an influence in American culture and education.

MODERN LANGUAGE GROUP, LOUISIANA COLLEGE CONFERENCE

THE FIFTH annual convention of the Louisiana College Conference held in Lafayette, Louisiana, March 13 and 14, with Southwestern Louisiana Institute as the host, was the occasion for a very successful meeting of the Modern Foreign Language Group of this growing organization. Professor J. T. Krumplemann (German) of Louisiana State University, Chairman of the group, presented the following program:

- The value of Textbooks in the Teaching of Literature—Mr. Werner Peiser, Loyola University
- Wildenbruch's Insight into Child Nature—Mr. J. Clay Walker, Tulane University Discussion opened by Mr. Karl J. Arndt, Louisiana State University
- Contes et Légendes—Miss Marie del Norte Thériot, Southwestern Louisiana Institute Discussion opened by Mr. Werner Peiser, Loyola University
- 4. Business Meeting

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5. Election of Officers

The attendance was good. The auditors gave the speakers close attention and participated in and enjoyed the discussion throughout the entire program.

The following officers were elected to serve for the year 1942-43:

Chairman: Graves B. Roberts.

Vice-Chairmen: Miss Benoit, John McNeese Jr. College, Lake Charles, Vice-Chairman for French; Mr. Phelps, Centenary College, Shreveport, Vice-Chairman for German; Miss Margaret Waldrep, Southeastern College, Vice-Chairman for Spanish.

GRAVES B. ROBERTS, Southwestern Louisiana Institute

"What Others Say—"

THE LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGE AND TEACHER EDUCATION¹

IT FOLLOWS that a good general education is more important for a teacher than for any other citizen. A teacher-any teacher-needs to understand man's history and institutions. He needs knowledge of himself and of his kind, as well as of the natural world in which he finds himself. He must possess skill in interpretation and expression, whether the symbols used are number or words or the elements of art. He should be on friendly terms with some of the masterpieces of the human spirit and should hold convictions that guide him serenely in his relations with his God and his fellow men. Such achievements, I should like to point out, require the education of the emotions as well as of the intellect. Indeed the day is coming when we shall be as unwilling to put children in the care of the emotionally illiterate as of the intellectually illiterate. ... The college that proposes to attack the problem seriously must think of teacher education in the broadest fashion, as a function and responsibility of the entire institution. It will need to seek the counsel of educational leaders, in the public schools and elsewhere, and of authorities on the needs and problems of youth. It will wish to consider the requirements of social living today, in communities, in regions, in the nation, and in the world. Its program will draw heavily upon the established resources of the liberal arts college and will not need to deviate from what is best in the liberal tradition, but it will be equally enriched, I have no doubt, by new elements.

Notes and News

SERVICE BUREAU FOR MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHERS, KANSAS STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE

THE SERVICE BUREAU for Modern Language Teachers at the Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia announces a new bulletin which will contain an annotated bibliography of books in English about Latin America. Other mimeographed bulletins of interest to teachers include bibliographies of texts for class and home reading in Spanish and in French; Series for French Conversation, with lists of words of every-day life; a similar list for Spanish; Tests and Test-Building with sample copies of the Every Pupil tests in French and Spanish; French Clubs;

¹ From an article by Karl W. Bigelow, director of the Commission on Teacher Education, American Council on Education, in *The Educational Record*, January, 1942, pp. 55-56.

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Activities for Spanish Clubs, with suggestions for assembly programs; Spanish Holidays and Festivals; a similar list for French; American Sources of Realia for French Classes; a similar list for Spanish. The Service Bureau also has for loan annotated postcards descriptive of France, Spain, and Mexico. Any of these materials can be secured upon receipt of the cost of postage (five cents for the bulletins and twelve cents for the postcards). Address all inquiries to the director, Dr. Minnie M. Miller, Teachers College, Emporia, Kansas.

OHIO MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHERS INSTITUTE

FROM June 15 to June 20, 1942, a Modern Language Teachers Institute will be held in Columbus, Ohio, under the auspices of the newly-formed Ohio Modern Language Teachers Association. The program is being developed and the arrangements are being made by state and local committees. Place of meeting is to be the campus of the Ohio State University.

The program is to include talks on Modern Language Methodology, on Psychology, on Languages, Literatures, and Cultures, by teachers who are recognized authorities, some from Ohio, most of them from outside of Ohio. There will be opportunities to discuss related topics. Demonstration classes will be taught by recognized successful teachers.

Monday, June 15, is to be Registration day. The following four and a half days are to be packed with opportunities for information and discussion on topics interesting and vital to teachers of Modern Languages. If you wish a copy of the program, and your name is not on the Ohio Modern Language Teachers Association mailing list, write to F. Dewey Amner, Secretary-Treasurer, OMLTA, Denison University, Granville, Ohio.

The Ohio Modern Language Teachers Association is a Department of the Ohio Education Association. The officers for the present year are: President: Mabel M. Shilling, Cleveland Heights High School, Cleveland Heights, Ohio. Vice-President: Mr. Gildo Gene Santavicca, Bellaire High School, Bellaire, Ohio. Secretary-Treasurer: Prof. F. Dewey Amner, Denison University, Granville, Ohio.

With the Ohio Modern Language Teachers Association is affiliated the Ohio Council on Modern Language Teaching, of which the Chairman is Prof. James B. Tharp, Department of Education, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

PERMANENT LOAN EXHIBIT OF THE AATF

The American Association of Teachers of French has prepared a Permanent Loan Exhibit and is happy to offer it free of charge to schools, colleges, organizations of language teachers, or for use at Parents' Association meetings. The exhibit consists of samples of all the realia which French teachers may secure in America, such as pictures, posters, books, maps, songbooks, newspapers, magazines, films, slides, dolls, puppets, stamps, money, atc. Commercial realia companies are represented. There are also a number of articles of realia made by high school students. Other items of interest are the new enlargements of French commemorative stamps prepared by Professor Daniel Girard of Columbia University, reproductions from the Renaissance collection of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, samples of material available at several Service Bureaus, and phonograph records for teaching conversation and songs.

The exhibit is packed in an army locker. It is sent express collect and should be returned in the same way. Thus one-half of the express cost is assumed by the A.A.T.F. and one-half by the borrowing group. The exhibit is easily placed on display tables, and each division of the exhibit is provided with a sign showing its nature. The exhibit, while primarily concerned with French, contains much material of interest to teachers of other languages. A mimeographed bulletin giving addresses of the material shown is furnished for distribution to each teacher seeing the exhibit. All inquiries concerning the loan of the exhibit may be addressed to the chairman of the A.A.T.F. committee, Dr. Minnie M. Miller, Teachers College Emporia, Kansas.

STEPHEN A. FREEMAN

SUMMER STUDY IN LATIN AMERICA JUNE-AUGUST, 1942

SUMMER SCHOOL IN CUBA-for students and teachers (July 10-August 23).

Courses at the University of Havana will be given in Spanish, Spanish and Latin American literature, Latin American governments, inter-American diplomatic relations, Cuban social and economic problems, and other subjects of interest to United States students.

Selection of students will be made by the Institute of International Education. Preference will be given to students with at least one year of college Spanish.

All-expense trip organized by the Institute of International Education includes: round trip by plane from Miami to Havana, baggage transfer, U. S. defense tax and Havana tourist tax, all fees at summer school, and 44 days at the Havana hotel, with room and meals (prices based on half of double room): At Hotel Vedado—\$214; At Hotel Nacional—\$258.

Social science study trip to Mexico (June 26-August 21) under the leadership of Professor Max Savelle, of Stanford University, California.

Purpose: to allow a group of about 20 people to get first-hand information for completing research projects in the field of economics, sociology, diplomatic relations or some other branch of the social sciences. The Institute of International Education is making contacts in advance with educators, industrialists and public administrators in Mexico so that the students' research will be facilitated. Guidance and assistance on research will be given by the group leader.

Selection of students will be made by the Institute of International Education on the basis of the research project and general qualifications of the students. One year of college Spanish is a minimum requirement for membership in the group.

All-expense trip organized by the Institute of International Education includes: round trip by rail (including Pullman, meals on the train and U. S. defense tax) or air (including meals and Federal defense tax), baggage transfers, all fees at summer school of the University of Mexico, and 56 days at the Hotel Gillow with room and meals (prices based on half of double room).

By rail		By air			
From Los Angeles	-\$4 56	From Brownsville	-\$ 351		
From Chicago	— 463	From Los Angeles	-490		
From New York	— 544	From Miami	- 490		

Make Application to: Miss Dorothy M. Field, Inter-American Study Projects, Institute of International Education, 2 West 45th Street, New York City.

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CONSERVATION OF SCHOLARLY JOURNALS

THE American Library Association created this last year the Committee on Aid to Libraries in War Areas, headed by John R. Russell, the Librarian of the University of Rochester. The Committee is faced with numerous serious problems and hopes that American scholars and scientists will be of considerable aid in the solution of one of these problems.

One of the most difficult tasks in library reconstruction after the first World War was that of completing foreign institutional sets of American scholarly, scientific, and technical periodicals. The attempt to avoid a duplication of that situation is now the concern of the Committee.

Many sets of journals will be broken by the financial inability of the institutions to renew subscriptions. As far as possible they will be completed from a stock of periodicals being purchased by the Committee. Many more will have been broken through mail difficulties and loss of shipments, while still other sets will have disappeared in the destruction of libraries.

The size of the eventual demand is impossible to estimate, but requests received by the Committee already give evidence that it will be enormous.

With an imminent paper shortage attempts are being made to collect old periodicals for pulp. Fearing this possible reduction in the already limited supply of scholarly and scientific journals, the Committee hopes to enlist the cooperation of subscribers to this journal in preventing the sacrifice of this type of material to the pulp demand. It is scarcely necessary to mention the appreciation of foreign institutions and scholars for this activity.

Questions concerning the project or concerning the value of particular periodicals to the project should be directed to Wayne M. Hartwell, Executive Assistant to the Committee on Aid to Libraries in War Areas, Rush Rhees Library, University of Rochester, Rochester, New York.

Reviews

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s. was Tanner, Rollin H., Lawler, Lillian B., and Riley, Mary L. Adventures in Language. Drawings by Syd Browne. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1941. Price, \$1.60.

This attractively printed and profusely illustrated book, joint product of a university professor of education, a college professor of the classics, and a high school teacher of French, in about two hundred full pages of text and somewhat less than a hundred of references and study assignments, the "adventures" of the title, deals with general language.

Not undertaking to initiate American youth without tears into each or any one of the foreign languages taught in our schools nor to entertain them with synthetic products, it starts ab ovo by discussing the various theories of the origin of language, the three major groupings, and the branches of the Indo-European family.

Four chapters are devoted to written language, one each to Greek, Latin, Spanish, French, Italian, German, English, and to what Mr. Mencken calls "the American language," while a single chapter deals more briefly with the tongues of "the lesser breeds" and another with the problem of a worldwide language. Four chapters are devoted to the making of books and the great libraries of antiquity, while the three last undertake to establish a proper attitude toward the grammar of the mother tongue and right habits in its use.

Each chapter is followed by a list of books for reference that seem quite within the range of boys and girls of grades nine and ten and a series of questions or potential projects, some of which will require some effort on the part of the teacher who wishes to keep abreast of the subject. There is also "a word story," dealing with some interesting word, such as shibboleth, tariff, graph.

There are, to be sure, some cases of that rather common sin of crediting to Latin English words that came more immediately from French. Crusade, for example (page 165), did not come directly from crux, nor did furnace, office, salad, salary, dinner, juice, vegetable, dessert, cab, or party. While in the long passage on pages 195–197 the words of French origin that are not italicized are almost as numerous as those that are marked.

One may, too, be a trifle skeptical about the naturalization in American English of the Spanish pampas or of the availability for dancing vaqueros in New Mexico of "graceful senoritas in flowing mantillas."

In the chapter on "The Language of Germany" the authors seem to have telescoped Minnesingers, writers of court epics, and Meistersingers. Surely Nuremberg might better be called the "Home of the Meistersingers."

As a bit of collateral reading, this book can certainly be recommended to boys and girls of the later junior or earlier senior high school years for the interesting information that it purveys. Moreover, as a text to be studied under the guidance of an interested and well informed teacher, it might well give such young people some glimpse of the part that language plays in human life, some interest in its history, some comprehension of it as an ever changing organism, and perhaps even a keener interest in the careful study of some language, ancient or modern, that the high school curriculum offers him.

FREDERICK S. HEMRY

Severn School, Severna Park, Md.

Vier Abenteuergeschichten. Edited by L. J. Russon, M. A. London, New York, Toronto: Longmans, Green and Company, 1941. Price, \$.60.

This reader contains eighty pages of text: three short stories and an episode taken from a longer story. It is the first of a series (senior grade) designed to provide "pupils who have pursued German beyond the elementary stage with texts which are modern and interesting, and which at the same time make some pretence to be literature." An intermediate and a

junior series are also to appear.

The literary merits of the episode, Der Masterpfahl by Friedrich von Gagern, might well be doubted. It is the story of how one Wetzel is captured by Indians, tortured, and finally escapes. It would no doubt entertain our students' British cousins, but the American scene in German can easily seem ridiculous. "[Er] hatte nur den Geist noch und den Ruf: Duncan!
... Monaghan!... McMillan!... Indianer! Soldaten!... dann Hände um die Kehle, Knebel im Mund, dreißigfache Übermacht gegen sich und keine Hoffnung mehr."

Georg von der Vring's Die Furt is the story of how a war-weary North German volunteer of 1809 finally returns to his home. The style is fairly straightforward, although the first few pages contain a confusing number of proper nouns nowhere so denominated by the editor. Hebbel's Eine Nacht im Jägerhause is somewhat easier, consisting as it does chiefly of direct discourse. Skillful creation of atmosphere is its raison d'être. Most difficult, but also most interesting, is Richard Dehmel's Der Werwolf, the one tragic tale in the collection. It is also the only one lightened by touches of irony, and should appeal particularly to maturer students. The indirect discourse and delightfully pompous official language should definitely increase their command of German.

The vocabulary is almost complete, with some phrases translated in footnotes (which are used with decent restraint) or at the back of the book as "Selected Idioms." Of the omissions the following may be confusing: Husar, Federdecke, Kutter, Büchsenschuß, Böschung, mit (adv.), erweisen. Occasionally a suitable English equivalent is lacking: einreden, talk over (auf einen einreden, speak urgently to); eben, just (nicht eben, not exactly—p. 38); gehen, go, walk (Ging nicht die Haustür?); schlecht, bad (mein schlechtes Haus); treffen, befall, hit (alles, das Sie bei mir getroffen hätten—experience); Riegel, bolt (in a fence: bar, rail); stehen, stand (ein Todesfall stand zu erwarten); hampeln, waddle (jerk or even limp—the text of Dehmel's Gesammelte Werke has humpeln); vorhalten, reproach with (insufficient: einem etwas vorhalten); verstehen, understand (sc. how). Michel, p. 28 seems to mean "fellow"; the spelling Triumpl, p. 44 looks hybrid. Whether "von . . . her,", "nach . . . zu" or "nur immer herein" (only always in!) cause difficulty can depend only upon previous training and native intelligence.

There are the usual assorted "Übungen," including plenty of English-German composition. The texts, the editing, the physical appearance and the price commend the book to all in need of a month's reading for second or third year students.

STUART ATKINS

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Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts BANG, CAROL KLEE, Maske und Gesicht in den Werken Conrad Ferdinand Meyers. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1940. Price, \$2.50.

By means of this dissertation the critical literature on C. F. Meyer's works has been greatly enriched. The author, Dr. Carol Klee Bang, has set for herself the task of classifying the confusing, motley abundance of Masken and Gesichte according to their variations. With great industry and with a thorough knowledge of the works of Conrad Ferdinand Meyer, Dr. Bang has completed this task so thoroughly, indeed, that one cannot avoid doubts as to whether all Masken and Gesichte listed here are really typical of C. F. Meyer, and whether the author, in her honest endeavor to present an exhaustive compilation, was not misled into hunting up more masks than Meyer had actually intended to be included (or found) in his Novellen and poems. It is well known that from his early youth Conrad Ferdinand Meyer showed an exaggerated fear of life which was unquestionably pathological. This apprehension is the key to his poetic activity. Meyer wrote altogether eleven Novellen, if we include Jürg Jenatsch as a Novelle, the subject-matter of all of which is borrowed from the historic past. One cannot help but feel that the historical setting, the heroic attitude, is a "false front" with Conrad Ferdinand Meyer; the insecurity, the Unausgeglichenheit, behind it is the real Conrad Ferdinand Meyer. Out of this struggle between Sein and Schein are born Meyer's fear of self-revelation and his impulse toward disguise and concealment, his urge to make use of Masken and Gesichte. In estimating the extent to which C. F. Meyer has made use of these masks, it is necessary to keep in mind that no one character is the same individual to more than one other person. That is, the reality of individuals is not absolute. Each character has as many exterior realities as the number of encounters he makes. In the light of this observation it seems as if some of the Masken and Gesichte are somewhat far-fetched and strained, so that it often becomes difficult for one to concur in the author's findings and classifications. No doubt, Dr. Bang was, at times, carried away by her enthusiasm for Meyer's art.

The value of the arrangement of this piece of research might have been tremendously enhanced if the author had reversed the two-fold division of her work, for it might have been, logically, more advantageous if she had brought "Maske und Gesicht des Dichters" first, and then "Maske und Gesicht in den Werken." This would seem particularly true, since the work of a poet is in large part the reflection of his life and experiences. The significance of the various types of Masken and Gesichte would, doubtless, have been more apparent. The Anhang, too, might very well have been utilized as introductory material.

The author is to be commended for her excellent command of German, which here and there, however, shows traces of Americanisms and foreignisms.

All in all, the student of literature, and especially, the student of Conrad Ferdinand Meyer, must be grateful for the material which Dr. Bang has so painstakingly compiled and classified, and for which she has shown such profound psychological understanding.

EUGEN HARTMUTH MUELLER

Ohio University, Athens, Ohio

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HAGBOLDT, PETER, Graded German Readers (The Heath-Chicago Alternate German Series), Books I to III, issued separately. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1941. Price, \$0.28 each.

The first three books of Dr. Hagboldt's Alternate Series again reveal the sterling qualities which characterize his original series. The books are planned just as carefully and are designed to meet the needs of the beginning student as far as his reading problems are concerned. All three should find ready acceptance by teachers.

The general format of the three new volumes, all of which are pocket-size, parallels in size and binding that of their predecessors. The combined three new volumes present, according to the author, 815 new words and 90 new idioms as compared with about 745 new words

and 96 new idioms in the first three books of the original series. The vocabulary of the alternate series is a more statistically-derived one, since it is based upon a summary of the most recent vocabulary studies. The alternate series, when complete, will use about 85% of the 1018 words (starred for first two years) of the "Minimum Standard German Vocabulary," which was adopted by the American Association of Teachers of German. Further included are the 500 most frequent words found in C. M. Purin's "Standard German Vocabulary of 2932 Words and 1500 Idioms." The reviewer's list of 400 words found common to 12 frequency lists is also included. New words are explained in footnotes following their first occurrence. At the end of each book a general vocabulary is given. Although this vocabulary, by combining all words alphabetically, makes it easier for the student in quick reference, it loses a special advantage of Dr. Hagboldt's system used in his original series, where the reviewer has found that the double reference demanded works to advantage by stressing the necessity for learning the meaning the first time. The author adheres to his former system of listing at the very end of the book the idioms and the pages where they first occur.

The first book of the alternate series uses Roman print; the other two use Fraktur. The increase in difficulty in passing from one type form to the other and in the text content is not too great.

The first two books are of the "Märchen" type; "Pechvogel und Glückskind" (Volkmann-Leander) covers the entire first volume; while the second book embraces two, "Das tapfere Schneiderlein" and "Schneewittchen" (Grimm). Book three, "Erzählungen und Anekdoten" consists of 17 selections of varying length and of about 100 proverbs interspersed among the selections.

The first book contains 40 pages of text; the second, 45 pages; the third, 48. There are no exercises following the text in any of the three books, as there are in the original series; hence the writing of appropriate exercises will place an additional task on the teacher.

Speaking generally, the reviewer believes that the three books of the alternate series are just a bit more difficult as textbooks than those of the first series. On the other hand, the reading material is in continuous story form, except in the third book, which consists of small units. Continuous stories offer a distinct advantage in simplifying comprehension.

As in the case of his original series, the first two books could be read in the first semester.

The third could well be started in the second semester.

ARNOLD A. ORTMANN

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Lafayette Junior High School, Baltimore, Maryland

Held, Hilde Kant, Deutsche Satzmelodie. South Hadley, Mass.: Mount Holyoke College, 1941. Price, \$.50. Set of three recordings, accompanying this booklet: \$4.50.

The introduction to this booklet points out quite correctly that mastery of German syntax, pronunciation, and idiomatic usage is not enough for reproducing German as it is spoken by the Germans. It is also very important for the American who wants to speak good German that he acquire at least the fundamentals of the German intonation, the German Satzmelodie. It is the aim of this booklet to introduce the American tongue to the German Satzmelodie. Obviously such an aim can only be obtained by aural and oral training; for this reason the booklet is accompanied by a set of three recordings.

The first chapter contrasts the speech of the French, the German, and the American. There are some good general suggestions for acquiring a German articulation. (Recordings III and III contain the Lord's Prayer and an excerpt from the Story of the Three Bears, read by a representative of each of the three nationalities.)

Chapter II on Worthetonung follows essentially Siebs' excellent presentation in Deutscht Bühnenaussprache Hochsprache (pp. 88–91). In section VIII of this chapter the juxtaposition of the German prefixes bei and ur (which are stressed) and the Latin prefix im (which in most cases is not stressed) is somewhat misleading. The German prefix im (appearing but once in German, namely in Imbiß) is derived from ein, which might have been included in this group. Import, Impressionismus, and Imperfekt should be included in section IX (Fremdwörter). The rule concerning words with endings from foreign sources is not specific enough; words such as Museum, Gymnasium, Kaktus, Doktor, Stadion, etc., are not stressed on the last syllable.

Chapter II on Satzbetonung contains a good analysis of the sentence in regard to the relative importance (and, consequently, stress) of its various component elements (Druckworte and Sinnworte).

The best and most important contribution of the booklet is the chapter on Satzmelodie proper. While numerous individual and differences exist, three basic forms of the Satzmelodie (Melos) can be isolated: the rising, the fall, and the steady (gleichbleibende) Melos. Numerous sentences—simple statements, questions, sentences with dependent clauses, sentences with interjections, etc.—are analyzed as to the Melos-types they contain. These are copiously illustrated by graphs of the sentence melody. All the model sentences are found on recordings I and III, so that sound and graph can easily be compared.

The booklet contains a wealth of exercise material, sentence analyses as to stress, intonation, etc. Only few typographical errors were observed: on p. 5, Kieferträgheit, p. 8, Vorsilbe, p. 11, Kirche were misspelled.

In spite of its briefness this booklet contains valuable information, and even without the recordings it should be of help in improving the speaking ability.

KARL-HEINZ PLANITZ

University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio

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VAIL, CURTIS, C. D., Graded German Short Stories. New York: Oxford University Press, 1941. Price, \$1.25.

The four stories included in the text are: Germelshausen, Immensee, L'Arrabbiata, and Höher als die Kirche in the given order. The feature in this edition of these stories is that they have been ameliorated by an arduous and systematically controlled simplification of vocabulary and sentence structures. The simplification of vocabulary is based on the AATG word list and the procedure followed is: First, it is assumed that the student knows the words on the elementary level of the AATG list and these are left unchanged. 2. Words on the intermediate level of the AATG list are, on their first appearance in the text printed with their meanings in footnotes, often with connotations. 3. Words not included in the AATG list are translated parenthetically in the body of the text or deleted. 4. Words in the second category above which appear only once or twice in the four stories are deleted or if possible replaced by words of greater frequency, the aim being to increase the repetition of words.

As a result of this editing process in the first story 282 words are translated in the footnotes and 30, plus two duplications (Mappe, Schulze), in the body of the text, or approximately 18 per cent of the total vocabulary. In the second story 133 words appear in the footnotes and 65, plus five duplications (Käfig, Hänfling, Laub, Wirtschaftsgebäude, Kuckuck), in the body of the text, or approximately 9½ per cent of the total vocabulary. In the third story 73 words appear in footnotes and 32, plus three duplications (steil, drüben, Augenbrauen), in the body of text, or approximately 8 per cent of the total vocabulary. In the fourth story 84 words appear in the footnotes and 52, plus 3 duplications (Schürze, Nische, Leiter), in the body of the text, or approximately 6 per cent of the total vocabulary. These figures do not take into account the deleted and replaced words in the text.

The revision of the vocabularies in these stories does not greatly affect their length. The difference in the number of words either way would not amount to one page of the text. In the first and fourth stories fewer words are used and in the second and third more.

Material for practice in oral composition is provided by 230 Fragen, based on the text, an average of not quite two to the page. There are also over 400 exercises to be translated into German involving the most frequent idioms on the Hauch list as they occur in the text.

This edition of these stories may well claim a systematic and consistent simplification of their vocabularies to the end that they may be more easily and more rapidly read. In that respect it will serve a useful purpose. It can not and does not claim that the flavor and ornamentation of the original texts have been retained. The editor expresses the hope that this

loss will be balanced by the removal of difficulties through his revision.

The following example taken from the first two pages of Germelshausen illustrate the editing procedure. The words in brackets are deleted, those in parentheses are substituted for those preceding them. Sauber [gefertigte] [Leder] mappe; Der [keck] auf einer Seite sitzende, [schwarze], breiträndige Hut, das lange, blonde, [gelockte] Haar; etwas abgetragene>ziemlich alte; Sammtrock>Rock; von einem schwarzseidenen Tuche [nur locker] zusammengehalten; Stecken>Stab; wundersam>wundervoll; Bergeshänge>Berge; liess die trüben (schweren) und schwermütigen (traurigen) Gedanken nicht aufkommen; er behielt also den alten noch eine Zeitlang bei>er ging also noch eine Zeitlang weiter; Rasenweg>Pfad; Grund>Tal; zur [kurz gemähten] Wiese; Rasen>Gras; und sehr zufrieden [mit seinem Tausche] vorwärts.

Without in any way disparaging the excellence of the text as an alleviating medium for students, the general question arises whether the dilution of such popular Novellen by a fixed formula does not do violence to their literary qualities. If the aim is merely to present the story with its human interest and appeal, why not relate it in simple words and give it another title, as did Miss Hinz in her adaptation of Germelshausen under the title of Das geheimnisvolle Dorf in a vocabulary of 1100 words as compared to over 1700 words in the original?

E. F. ENGEL

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University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas

STEINHAUER, HARRY and WALTER, FELIX, Omnibus of French Literature. New York: The Macmillan Company. 2 vols. Price, \$3.50 each.

The first of these two volumes covers the period from Rabelais to Chénier, the second from Chateaubriand to Anatole France. The editors lightly remark in the Preface: "The anthology is the step-child among text-books; disliked by everybody it must nevertheless be endured" (I, v). This cannot really be true, or we should not have so many. In fact, I suspect that the opposite is quite as true; every competent teacher approves of anthologies for certain purposes, but he naturally wants to write his own. This anthology, for which we are indebted to two Canadian professors, has several admirable pedagogical principles back of its editing. It gives as many complete texts as possible, for example in the first volume Le Cid, Le Misanthrope, Andromaque, L'Art Poétique, Le Jeu de l'Amour et du Hasard, Zadig, Le Barbia de Séville; in the second volume Atala, Le Curé de Tours, Ruy Blas, Un Coeur Simple, Les Corbeaux, L'Attaque du Moulin, La Mule du Pape, En Famille, Crainquebille.

This is certainly a generous sampling of "representative classics," far better than is found in most anthologies. In addition there are numberless short selections giving a well rounded

conception of the total flow of literature.

Poetry has of course but small part in the first volume, outside of the dramatic verse of Corneille, Molière, Racine. La Fontaine is quite adequately represented by thirty proverbes, Ronsard by eleven poems, Du Bellay by six. In the second volume all the usual figures appear in the normal development of nineteenth century verse, ending with Verlaine's Amour.

Most authors do not suffer much from the treatment here adopted. For example, La Rochefoucauld can be well enough presented with a few maximes; indeed, no more need be given than his famous Nous avons tous asses de force pour supporter les maux d'autrui. This is the real La Rochefoucauld. But Montaigne does not appear adequately in Au lecteur and

Du Démentir alone. The pleasant Zadig gives no idea of the multiple interests to be found in Voltaire. Again, the Encyclopédie here seems to lack variety and body.

One word needs to be said concerning the critical apparatus. There is usually one page of biography and literary comment before each major selection. Nearly all these pages are informative, factual, necessary. Literary controversies (for instance, those about *Le Cid*), are passed over with the most cursory mention.

The chief value of these two volumes will be, then, the collection into a convenient space, and for a reasonable amount of money, of a considerable quantity of fine literature, sufficient to give the reader a good running idea of the whole evolution of French literature from the Renaissance to 1900.

WILFRED A. BEARDSLEY

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SPINK, GERALD WILLIAM, Jacques Lenormand et ses Amis. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, n.d. Limp paper. Vocabulary. 1941. Price, 48 cents.

Moore, Mina J., Charme de Province. Contes recueillis. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, n.d. Cloth. Vocabulary. 1941. Price, \$1.05.

Here are two useful volumes from England. Dr. Spink is senior modern language master at Jarrow Secondary School and Dr. Moore is from Cardiff University College. Jacques Lenormand et ses Amis is a booklet of 105 pages devoted to the life of one of the author's "most intimate friends." Thirty brief chapters deal with such topics as Jacques Lenormand's family and school comrades, and many individuals-police, firemen, mail carriers, doctor, priest-with whom the imaginary French youth comes into contact. Each chapter has a questionnaire, suggestions for themes, and phrases and idioms to be learned. The material is not difficult; it is interesting and instructive. Students may profitably use this publication early in their study of French. Charme de Province contains thirteen tales from Alsace, Lorraine, Brittany, and Provence by Hinzelin, Brisson, Moselly, Mathilde Delaporte, Souvestre, le Geoffic, Arène, and Daudet. With the exception of two of Daudet's favorites these selections will be found new by American teachers and students. Each section is prefaced by an article in French on the several provinces. The footnotes are rare; there are none of the devices -all too frequent in American editions-to make the work easy for the student. Many teachers will welcome these new, attractive texts which have proved successful among our sturdy British cousins.

GEORGE B. WATTS

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Davidson College, Davidson, North Carolina

Dumas, Alexandre, Les Trois Mousquetaires. Edited by James L. Cattell and John T. Fotos. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1941. Price, \$1.60.

It doesn't seem to matter much how many times you read *Les Trois Mousquelaires*. It's bound to be fascinating. And this new edition, prepared by the already distinguished authors, Professors Cattell and Fotos, have made the popular novel even more agreeable than ever by retaining the most interesting and characteristic episodes in the *original text* of Dumas. The idea of using the unaltered text should be stressed. The method of the authors has been to compress the extraneous matter into résumés in French, thus bringing the novel of almost 1000 pages, as published originally, down to 219 pages of text. It is worth noting, too. that the résumés are not sketchy, but that they are full of information.

The teaching devices offered by this edition aim to make it possible for the student to read the work earlier in his course. They include: (a) the visible page vocabularies list, (b)

the visible footnotes, (c) new-type comprehension tests, and (d) vocabulary and idiom-building tests. To put the student more on his own, new words are listed but once in the visible vocabulary, but, if necessary, he may turn to the excellent, complete vocabulary at the end.

A few omissions and misprints were detected but which detract little from a superb book: il for ils (p. 209, l. 5); omission of hyphen in au-dessus (p. 90, l. 13; p. 112, l. 2; p. 116, l. 15); a misprint in the heading of II, p. 264; accents were omitted in différents (p. 163, l. 8) goûter (in the special vocabulary, p. 127), and précipitant (p. 128, l. 14).

This book with its abundant footnotes and other excellent teaching equipment has great merit and will fit well into the French courses of our schools and colleges. It is attractively

printed and contains pleasing illustrations to add to the student's enjoyment.

LESTER C. NEWTON

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Phillips Academy, Andover, Massachusetts

DAUDET, ALFONSE, Tartarin de Tarascon. Edited by Edward I. Amateau, Benedict Γ'Arlon, and André Humbert. New York: The Odyssey Press, 1941. Price, 80 cents.

This abridged edition of one of the most popular reading texts is very timely in these days of accelerated programs in education. The editors, teachers in the New York City high schools, condensed the French text into twenty-three chapters or comprehensive units, averaging from two and a half to three pages each. The descriptive passages were shortened and the technical expressions were omitted.

The narrative is integrated by an ingenious analysis in English preceding each chapter, written in a breezy, terse style that introduces very realistically the episodes of the French text. To teach and diversify the language-content of each comprehensive unit, the book gives a list of idiomatic expressions, a *Questionnaire*, and modern-type *Exercices*. These form with the French text a convenient assignment as tested out in the classroom; in fact, the entire book was pre-tested in this way.

The illustrations, generally a requisite for this work, furnish an excellent supplement to an understanding of the central story. They are at the same time very amusing. The book is attractively printed, and the only suggestion for possible improvement would be to use

italics for the translations in the footnotes.

This new edition will be valuable to schools that want an abridged *Tartarin de Tarascon*. It is sound in scholarship, attractive in make-up, and modern in treatment.

LESTER C. NEWTON

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LABICHE, EUGÉNE and MARTIN, ÉDOUARD, Le Voyage de Monsieur Perrichon. Edited by Virginia Cummings Fotos and John T. Fotos. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1941. Price, \$1.10.

Although many American editions of the timeless Le Voyage de Monsieur Perrichon have been published, the present one is surely worthy of a place alongside the rest. Few plays are more widely read and enjoyed by American students than this story of the retired carriage-maker who decides to take his wife and daughter for a trip to the Swiss Alps. The play is usually prepared for use in third and fourth semester French classes. The present edition, however, "is planned to enable a student in second or third-semester French to read the play with enjoyment." To accomplish this purpose the editors have prepared their edition with the following student aids: (1) a very complete vocabulary, listing all words and idioms used in the play; (2) phonetic pronunciations of all words including irregular verb forms; (3) page vocabularies listing as it appears each new word beyond the ones most commonly learned by

REVIEWS

the average first-year pupil; (4) and extensive translations and explanations in footnotes. The book has a very attractive appearance. It has inside cover maps showing the route traversed by the Perrichon from Paris to Mont Blanc. A good view of Chamonix is the only illustration. Exercises based upon popular words and idioms have been prepared for each scene of the play. Taken as a whole, it would appear that the editors are justified in their claims of the value of their new type edition of Le Voyage de Monsieur Perrichon. It should receive a cordial welcome. BURL BEAM

Ottawa High School, Ottawa, Kansas

WILLIAMS, EDWIN B., An Introductory Portuguese Grammar. New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, 1942.

The teaching of Portuguese in our educational centers has been handicapped by the lack of appropriate texts. Very little material for beginning classes has been available to meet the demands of a rapidly growing interest in the Portuguese language and it is discouraging to teachers and students alike to be obliged to use an obsolete text.

Doubly welcome, therefore, is Professor Edwin B. Williams An Introductory Portuguese Grammar—a clear, simple presentation of essentials. It follows, as far as arrangement and proportions are concerned, the efficient scheme of Barlow's Basic Spanish. The troublesome question of pronunciation is dealt with most clearly and concisely, without the use of those phonetic symbols that frequently scare away enthusiastic beginners. A notable feature is the simplified treatment of stress and accent. The book is divided into twenty-five carefully graded lessons, each one presenting a few fundamentals in very simple fashion followed by effective exercises. The vocabulary and idioms are those of everyday life. Brazilian variants are offered in parentheses. This grammar is most timely as it fills a need that has been acutely felt.

A worthy companion for Professor Williams' book is the recently published Artigos e contos portugueses by Professor George I. Dale of Cornell University. This attractive reader offers a collection of very appealing articles and short stories, admirably suited to the needs of beginners. It is pedagogically sound and in addition it gives the student a taste of the richness and beauty of the literature that awaits him.

ERNESTO DACAL

New York University, Washington Square, New York City

COESTER, ALFRED, Cuentos de la América española, Notes and Vocabulary. New edition. New York: Ginn and Company. Price \$1.52.

This is a new edition of a text already well known. The first edition appeared in 1920.

The following countries are represented in this anthology of short stories: Argentina, Cuba, Chile, Mexico, Nicaragua, Peru, Puerto Rico, Uruguay, Venezuela.

The stories are intended to be read as literature, not as material for grammatical dissection. There are no 'Conversation Exercises,' Questionnaires, or material for translation into

Spanish. This is a feature that the reviewer would like to commend, both for the sake of economy and because such exercises are not needed in texts for advanced study. Much of such

material is of little value pedagogically, except in elementary texts.

The editor has been successful in his aim: to furnish interesting reading matter, whose vocabulary should be Spanish-American, to present stories that are characteristic of each country represented, and to include stories of literary value, as an introduction to the study of the literatures of Hispanic-American countries.

The stories are of various types. The 'costumbristas' are represented in the sketch entitled 'Articulo the comercio' (Venezuela). The hard conditions of labor formerly prevailing in the mines of Chile are depicted in the familiar story of 'Juan Fariña.' 'Como se forman los caudillos' (Argentina) introduces the reader to the gauchos of Argentina and describes some of the methods used by the political bosses to win the support of their followers. In 'Los redentores de la patria' (Venezuela) and 'La bandera' we get a tragic and realistic picture of the psychology and the practical working of Hispanic-American revolutionary movements. The Nicaraguan Rubén Darío is represented by one of his best short stories, a real gem, 'La muerte de la emperatriz de la China,' so different in its style from all the other selections in the volume. Hispanic-American humor is well represented in 'El retrato de Juan Cintrón' (Puerto Rico). A glimpse of city life and manners is given in 'El pobre diablo' (Chile), with its episodes trifling in themselves, but full of human kindness and sympathy.

The vocabulary is complete and the carefully prepared notes explain the difficulties of language and idiom that the student may encounter.

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St. Olaf College, Northfield, Minnesola

HOUSE, RALPH E., and MAPES, EDWIN K., Shorter Spanish Grammar. New York: Ginn and Company, 1941.

This useful, richly illustrated text is "to a considerable extent a revision of Part I of The Essentials of Spanish Grammar" by the same authors, published in 1932. The new version has been made with Miss Ruth House, daughter of the late Dr. House, taking her father's place. There are thirty-two lessons, and six review lessons spaced through the book, as well as the usual supplementary material on "The Verb and Its Forms," including analphabetical list of all irregular verbs in the first five thousand words of the Buchanan Graded Spanish Word Book, and an 'Alphabetical List of Verbs with [and without] Connecting Prepositions.' This List has an example of the use of each verb. Pronunciation, syllabication, etc., are considered in the Introduction.

The grammar is liberally provided with exercises (five per lesson), so planned that teachers using the reading method have three exercises (reading matter in Spanish, questions in Spanish, and recognition drill), while those preferring the grammar-composition method have other exercises providing grammatical drill and composition. A similar arrangement prevails in the review lessons, which are very thorough and should provide a good check of the student's accomplishment.

The sequence in which material is presented is noteworthy, rather different from the conventional order. The subjunctive appears relatively early, about the middle of the book (present, in XVII; other tenses, in XXI), and thereafter rears its insidious head in many an exercise. This should be heartily applauded by teachers accustomed to cope with this vast subject as it is tucked away in the final lessons of the conventional grammar. Somewhat later than in the usual grammar, come the inflected forms of the possessive adjective (XXVI), the numbers (cardinals in XXXI and ordinals in XXXII—the last lesson), the dates and days of the week (also in XXXII), the months (XXXI), the time (XXXII), and the idiomatic uses of hacer and tener (XXVI). The grouping of the latter together seems an improvement upon the usual gradual (and earlier) introduction of such idioms as the famous hace frio, tengo frio, hace ... meses que ..., and the notorious 'ago' idiom. The exposition of the distinction between saber, conocer, and poder (Lesson XXVIII) is also well done. On the other hand, saber would be useful for classroom conversation if introduced earlier (its conjugation appears only in XXVII); poder is too important a verb to be postponed until lesson XXVIII; and poner, whose full conjugation does not appear until lesson XXX, would be a help to the devotee of classroom drill if introduced in lesson IX with the direct objects. This reviewer would also prefer to have the days of the week known to students earlier. The last lesson in the book seems a bit heavy, anyway.

Several omissions have been noted. The discussion of translation of 'than' is not adequate, only que being given (article 90). If further explanation has been overlooked by this writer it is because 'than' does not appear at all in the index, and only que and de appear in the vocabulary. I find no explanation of the use of the past participle with estar. This should have been included with the good discussion of other uses of the participles in Lesson XIV. The apocopation of ciento when it stands alone is not mentioned. To the statement that ser is used "to express origin, ownership, or material" one should also add—why not avoid the otherwise almost inevitable esta joven "because it's temporary"—"age and financial condition."

These are but small criticisms of what is really an excellent grammar, with many new ideas. The authors have a talent for expressing their rules clearly and briefly, without overcomplication. The material on pronunciation is good, though the numbering of divisions in the introduction which contains this material is somewhat confusing to the eye. Exercises are thorough, unusually lengthy, and varied to meet many needs. Material is for the most part well graded in difficulty and well arranged. The Shorter Spanish Grammar deserves wide acceptance.

J. RIIS OWRE

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Walsh, Gertrude M., Cuentos Criollos. Edited with Introduction, Notes, Exercises, and Vocabulary. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1941. Price, \$1.48.

To the rapidly expanding list of intermediate texts based on Spanish American sources, Cuentos Criollos adds an entertaining miscellany drawn from such well known writers as Rufino Blanco-Fombona, Ricardo Palma, and Benito Lynch, in addition to a distinguished list of contemporaries whose names have perhaps received less notice in the United States. Although at least three of the twenty-one selections are already included in other school editions, most of the material has not been previously edited for class use. The collection strikes a predominantly modern note for, with one or two exceptions, all of the stories were originally published during the past forty years and no less than half are of fairly recent date. Variety of source, subject, mood, and style characterizes the book as a whole. Included in specimens from the work of nineteen writers of twelve different countries is subject matter ranging from Horacio Quiroga's juvenile tale of the jungle and Ermilo Abreu Gómez's study in Mexican class prejudices, through sentimental or humorous gaucho sketches by Javier de Viana, to gripping narratives of brutal action and adventure by Alfonso Hernández-Catá and Carlos Samayoa Chinchilla. Students in search of vicarious excitement will revel in the realistic details concerning outlaws, shootings accidental or intentional, vengeance and suicide, deathbed reminiscences, jungle hallucinations, and man-eating sharks. Teachers who may object to the brutality or morbidness revealed in certain cuentos will find an antidote in other more innocuous tales and in the humorous portrayal of the wily dealings of two old Uruguayan ranchers (Rivales) or the clever bluff of an inexperienced woodsman ('Que pase el aserrador!).

The practical value of the book has been enhanced by the inclusion of reading hints for the student and adequate footnotes explaining or translating Americanisms and other difficult expressions. Exercises based upon the subject matter of the stories and factual material on Spanish America offer supplementary drill in conversation. Vocabulary building and the acquisition of idioms are also stressed. In this connection it should be pointed out that some of the words and expressions classed as idioms are too elementary to demand presentation in an intermediate text, e.g.: me gusta, tener que, poco a poco, tener sueño, hace frio, sin embargo. The end vocabulary appears on the whole adequate to student needs, but it would have been preferable to omit a larger number of common words which the intermediate classes might reasonably be expected to know and to add such difficult words as penca, macachines, and sembrador.

Although this should certainly not be classified as a simplified text, the editor has made a linguistic compromise in the interests of student comprehension "by condensing a few difficult passages and by substituting standard Spanish forms for some dialectical regionalisms." While such an expedient simplifies the tasks of both editor and student, the flavor of the original language may in some cases be somewhat lost.

The two pages of the bibliography of works on Spanish American literature list books sufficiently recent in most cases to be easily accessible to teachers wishing to build up a small yet representative reference shelf in the Hispanic field. The literary introduction, which attempts to trace in some eight pages the development of the cuento criollo, may be helpful to some teachers to whom this is an entirely new field, but will probably leave with the student only a hazy impression of a list of authors' names. Many writers whose works are not represented in the texts are here mentioned or discussed briefly along with the authors of the tales included in the volume, while an additional prefatory note about the author also introduces each story as it is presented. It would be definitely advantageous to fuse all this material together. That the introduction sometimes lacks direct application to the selections made seems especially evident in the case of Javier de Viana; the general statements describing his work in the introduction hardly appear exemplified in his cuentos presented in the body of the text.

Chance alone has apparently determined the arrangement of the stories, since no evident attempt is made to group them by author, alphabetically, chronologically, geographically or in order of relative difficulty. One unfortunate result of this lack of plan is that the student's first impression of the stories, if read in the order presented, is bound to be depressing. Nor can a race where family ties are stronger than our own be fairly introduced to our classes by a story whose theme is filial ingratitude on the part of a snobbish young Chilean officer.

Equally unsystematic is the attempt to supplement the realistic quality of the texts by scattering through the book groups of halftone reproductions of paintings by twenty Latin American artists representing sixteen different countries. Without questioning the value of introducing to the student such significant painters as Gil Coimbra and Diego Rivera, one may raise serious objection to the lack of method displayed in interrupting the thread of the narrative by interpolating an entirely unrelated group of miscellaneous illustrations. Not only are the pictures placed within stories instead of between them, but also there seems to have been a conscious effort to avoid the juxtaposition of stories and pictures representing the same country. An Argentine tale by Benito Lynch is interrupted by works of artists from Colombia Venezuela, Peru, and Uruguay. Even greater incongruity results from the selection of Antonio Bellalio's picture of an Ecuadorian funeral to illustrate a humorous story by the Colombian writer Jesús del Corral. Still more amusing is the choice of José Clemente Orozco's surrealist conception of a dive bomber and a tank to accompany a forty year old story of a Costa Rican señorita's first ball.

Notwithstanding these obvious minor defects, Cuentos Criollos will capture and hold the student's attention and serve a most useful purpose as a brief but forceful introduction to some of the truly significant aspects of contemporary Spanish American letters.

JAMES RAYMOND WADSWORTH

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LIPP, SOLOMON and BESSO, HENRY V., Conversational Spanish for Army Air Forces of the United States. New York: Hastings House, 1941.

The main body of this text consists of 33 chapters, divided into 6 parts, with Appendices. These chapters are so constructed that they can usually be covered in two recitations.

In the Appendices we find, among others, the following topics: 1. Spanish Family Names (Apellidos); 2. Proper Names; 7. Some Facts and Figures about Hispanic Countries; 8. Foods and Drinks; 10. Supplementary Reading Lists; 11. Summary of Spanish Pronunciation; 12. Summaries of Some Essential Points in Grammar; 16. Technical Vocabulary.

This manual endeavors to present to the more mature student a functional approach to the study of Spanish. Consequently there is a minimum amount of formal grammar and the grammatical concepts are explained only when the need for such explanation arises.

In view of the purpose of the book, the language, vocabulary, reading selections, and especially the conversational exercises for oral practice are devoted largely to those subjects "which have been, or are likely to be, a part of the students' experiential background."

The paucity of exercises constitutes a defect, if it may be so called. But, under the guidance of a skillful teacher, this need not be a disturbing factor. However, the lack of a phonetic treatment of letters and the modified direct-method of approach call for the most careful direction at all times.

The vocabulary at the rear of the text is small but usuable. "87% of the 629 words listed in Buchanan's study (or 550 words) are found within the first 2,000 words listed (i.e., the 2,000 words used most frequently and therefore considered basic)."

Of interest are the two maps in the beginning of the book. One, of Mexico and Central America, and the other, of South America, with their Spanish titles, speak with far more eloquence than a mere succession of names.

Of greater interest, on three other pages, are the diagrams of the front and side elevations as well as the plan view of an airplane. The different parts of the plane are labelled in Spanish.

The value of the book for Secondary Schools lies in its possibilities as a supplementary text. With its clever pen and ink illustrations and its brief conversations about the subject of aviation, which all youngsters enjoy and which no formal text has the time to treat, the manual could inject an additional spark of interest into the classroom. For the Spanish Club it holds many possibilities.

JACOB M. HORST

Franklin Day School Baltimore, Maryland

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